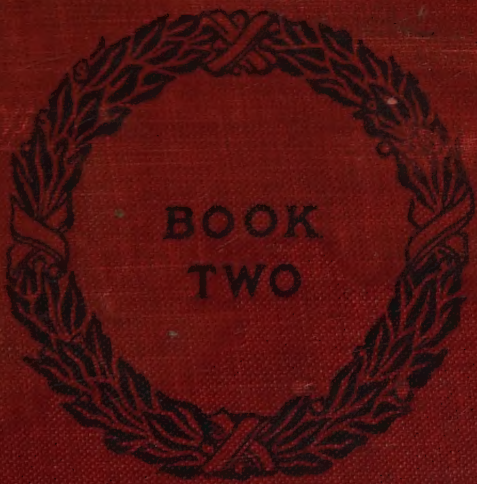


PROGRESSIVE
COURSE IN
ENGLISH

—
HOENSHEL



BOOK
TWO

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PROGRESSIVE COURSE IN ENGLISH

GRAMMAR

FOR

GRADES SEVEN AND EIGHT

BY

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AUTHOR OF "COMPLETE GRAMMAR," "ELEMENTARY
GRAMMAR," "ADVANCED GRAMMAR," ETC.

BOOK TWO

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HOENSHEL'S ENGLISH. BOOK TWO.

E-P 1

PREFACE

THIS book is a *grammar* for use in grades seven and eight.

There may have been a time when it was necessary to furnish reasons for giving grammar a prominent place in the course of study for the common schools, but that time has passed. It is now admitted that for training the reasoning power, or for furnishing the ability to appreciate the beautiful in literature and to express thoughts correctly, clearly, and forcibly, nothing can take the place of grammar.

The aim has been so to present the subject that the pupil will not only understand each step as he advances, but will see its relation to the use of correct English.

The following distinguishing features of the book will be found:

1. It is practical and definite. Every sentence was inserted for a distinct purpose.

2. Much constructive work — fully twice as much as is usually found in a textbook on grammar.

3. Attention given to the more important topics. Notice the space devoted to the correct use of pronouns and verbs.

4. Attention given to analysis. Logical oral analysis has almost become a lost art, and yet before a sentence can be read and understood it must be analyzed.

In reading, the emphasis used is nearly always an indication of the pupil's ability to analyze.

The models for analysis are complete but brief. No unnecessary words are used.

5. Models for parsing. A reasonable amount of parsing is of great value, but it should be done in a systematic manner.

6. A brief and comprehensive system of diagrams. No other system known to the author will tell so much, although several systems are more complicated.

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PROGRESSIVE COURSE IN ENGLISH

GRADE SEVEN

LESSON 1

DEFINITIONS

1. The words of the English language are divided into Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

2. A Noun is the name of anything.

3. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

4. An adjective is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun.

5. A Verb is a word that denotes action or being.

6. An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

7. A Preposition is a word used to show the relation of its object to the word the phrase modifies.

8. A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, and clauses.

9. An Interjection is a word used to denote strong feeling or emotion.

10. A Part of Speech is any one of the eight classes into which words are divided.

11. When we express our thoughts we use the parts of speech in groups called Sentences.

12. A Sentence is a thought expressed in words.

13. According to use sentences are divided into Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, and Exclamatory.

14. A Declarative Sentence is a sentence used in making a statement; as, "This is a very cold day."

15. An Interrogative Sentence is a sentence used in asking a question; as, "Do you think it will snow?"

16. An Imperative Sentence is a sentence used in making a command or request; as, "Put on your overcoat."

17. An Exclamatory Sentence is a sentence used in an exclamation, or in expressing strong feeling or emotion; as, "What a noise the wind makes!"

18. Each of the following is an exclamatory sentence:

1. How the thunder roars!
2. What a heavy rain this is!
3. Ah, how can I leave you!

LESSON 2

CLASSIFYING SENTENCES — SUBJECT, PREDICATE, OBJECT

1. Classify these sentences according to use:

1. Whistle and be gay.
2. What a piece of work is man!
3. Canst thou guide Arcturus?
4. How far that little candle throws its beams!
5. Why should the spirit of mortal be proud?

2. Write a declarative, an interrogative, an imperative, and an exclamatory sentence with each of these words:

flag

storm

3. Every sentence has two parts, the Subject and the Predicate.

4. The Subject of a sentence represents that of which something is said ; as, "*Girls* sing."

5. The Predicate of a sentence tells what is said of the subject ; as, "*Girls sing*."

6. The Object of a sentence completes the predicate, and names that which receives the act ; as, "*Girls sing songs*."

7. Classify these sentences, and name the subject, predicate, and object of each :

1. Birds build nests.

Model. — This is a declarative sentence, of which *birds* is the subject, *build* is the predicate, and *nests* is the object.

2. Ravens croak.

3. Minutes make hours.

4. Do serpents creep? (Serpents do creep.)

LESSON 3

MODIFIERS. — ANALYSIS, DIAGRAMS

1. Besides the subject, predicate, and object, there are often words in a sentence that describe other words, as you will notice by examining this sentence :

The long boat glides very gracefully.

The and *long* belong to, or modify, *boat* ; *gracefully* modifies *glides*, and *very* modifies *gracefully*.

2. A Modifier is a word that adds something to the meaning of another word, or changes or limits the meaning of another word.

A modifier may be a group of words, as we shall learn later.

When we classify sentences and name the subject, predicate, object, and modifiers, we are said to Analyze it.

3. Analysis of a sentence is naming its class, its subject, predicate, and object, and the modifiers of each.

4. Notice this analysis :

A good example never injures anybody.

This is a declarative sentence, of which *example* is the subject, modified by *a* and *good*, adjectives; *injures* is the predicate, modified by *never*, an adverb; *anybody* is the object.

5. Analyze these sentences :

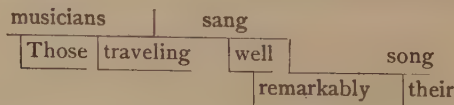
1. Many large diamonds were bought.
2. Up flew the windows all. (The subject does not always stand before the predicate.)
3. The castle gates were open flung.
4. The cold wind drives the fallen leaves.
5. The anchor holds the ship.

In analyzing a sentence we often place the different parts on related lines. This arrangement of a sentence is called a Diagram.

6. A Diagram is a picture showing the offices and the relations of the different words of a sentence.

7. Notice this diagram :

Those traveling musicians sang their song remarkably well.



The subject and the predicate are written on a horizontal line, and are separated by a short vertical line. The object is placed after the predicate, and a little below it. Modifiers are placed under the words they modify.

8. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 5.

9. Diagram these sentences :

1. Passionate men are easily irritated.
2. Words will pay no debts.
3. Very short journeys are sometimes made.

LESSON 4

COMPOUND SUBJECT, PREDICATE, OBJECT. — PHRASES, DIAGRAMS

1. A Compound Subject is two or more subjects for the same predicate.

2. A Compound Predicate is two or more predicates for the same subject.

3. A Compound Object is two or more objects for the same predicate.

4. Write a sentence having —

1. A compound subject.
2. A compound predicate.
3. A compound object.
4. Subject and predicate both compound.

5. We have correct combinations of words that do not express a thought; as, “to the woods”; “in the house.” These are called Phrases.

6. A Phrase is a group of words properly combined, but not expressing a thought.

A phrase has neither subject nor predicate.

If you examine the phrases in paragraph 5, you will notice that the first word in each is a preposition. For this reason they are called Prepositional Phrases. The noun or pronoun used after the preposition is called the object of the preposition.

7. A Prepositional Phrase is a phrase introduced by a preposition.

8. Notice this sentence :

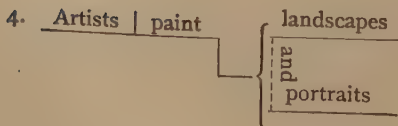
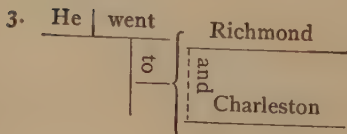
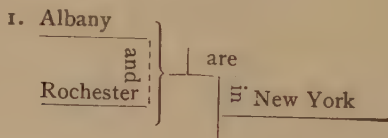
A grove of pines stood on the top of the mountain.

The phrase "of pines" modifies the noun *grove*; therefore it is an Adjective Phrase. The phrase "on the top of the mountain" modifies the verb *stood*; therefore it is an Adverb Phrase. The phrase "of the mountain" modifies the noun *top*; therefore it is an Adjective Phrase.

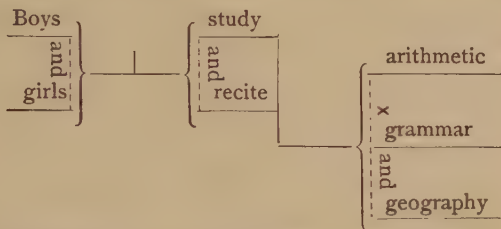
9. An Adjective Phrase is a phrase used to modify a noun or pronoun.

10. An Adverb Phrase is a phrase used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

11. Notice these diagrams :



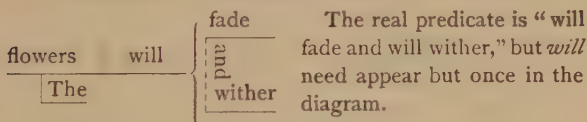
5. Boys and girls study and recite arithmetic, grammar, and geography.



A phrase is placed under the word it modifies. The preposition line extends below the line on which the object of the preposition is written. In the fifth diagram, notice that *arithmetic*, *grammar*, and *geography* are all the objects of each verb. *And* is omitted between *arithmetic* and *grammar*, and its place is marked with a cross (x).

12. Diagram these sentences :

1. The Romans assisted allies and friends.
2. Days, months, years, and ages will circle away.
3. The miners found gold, silver, and copper.
4. The flowers will fade and wither.



5. That boy can read and write German.
6. The prisoners dug a tunnel and escaped.
7. The top of the mountain is covered with snow.

LESSON 5

VERBS: COMPLETE, INCOMPLETE — COMPLEMENTS

1. Notice these sentences :

1. Rain falls.
2. The language of truth is simple.
3. A great mind is a fortune.
4. Armies gain victories.

In the first sentence the verb *falls* makes a complete predicate by itself. Such verbs are called Complete Verbs.

In the second sentence the verb *is* does not make a complete predicate by itself; it needs the help of the adjective *simple*. In the third sentence the noun *fortune* is needed to help the verb *is* make a complete predicate. In the fourth sentence the object *victories* is needed to complete the verb *gain*.

The verbs in the last three sentences are called Incomplete Verbs, and the words *simple*, *fortune*, and *victories* are called Complements of the Verbs.

2. A Complete Verb is a verb that will form a complete predicate by itself.

3. An Incomplete Verb is a verb that will not form a complete predicate by itself.

4. The Complement is the word or words used with an incomplete verb to complete the predicate.

The object of a sentence is always a complement, sometimes called the Object Complement.

5. Notice again these sentences :

1. The language of truth is simple.

2. A great mind is a fortune.

In the first, the complement *simple* is an adjective, modifying the subject *language*. In the second, the complement *fortune* is a noun meaning the same thing as the subject *mind*. In these sentences *simple* and *fortune* are called Attribute Complements.

6. The Attribute Complement completes the predicate and belongs to the subject.

If the attribute complement is an adjective, it modifies the subject; if it is a noun or a pronoun, it denotes the same person or thing as the subject.

7. In these sentences pick out the complete and the incomplete verbs, name the complement of each incom-

plete verb, and tell whether it is the object or the attribute complement :

1. Squirrels climb trees.
2. The lark sings joyously.

Sings is a complete verb, modified by *joyously*. A modifier of the verb is not a complement.

3. I met a little cottage girl.
4. The valley of the Nile is very fertile.
5. The diamond is a valuable gem.
6. Thou art Peter.

8. Notice these diagrams :

1. Glass | is — brittle

2. Humility has been called the mother of all virtues.

Humility | has been called = mother
| the |
|
| virtues
|
| all

When the attribute complement is an adjective it is separated from the verb by a dash, but when it is a noun or pronoun it is separated from the verb by two dashes (the sign of equality).

9. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 7.

LESSON 6

SENTENCES: SIMPLE, COMPOUND, COMPLEX

1. A proposition is a subject combined with its predicate.

Not every proposition is a sentence, as you will notice if you —

2. Examine these sentences :

1. The trees bend.
2. The trees bend, and the wind blows.
3. The trees bend when the wind blows.

The first sentence contains but one proposition. It is a Simple Sentence.

The second sentence contains two propositions, and each proposition is independent of the other. Since this sentence may be divided into two simple sentences, it is called a Compound Sentence. When a proposition is used as part of a sentence, it is called a Clause.

The third sentence also contains two propositions, but it cannot be divided into two simple sentences because one of the propositions is a modifier. "When the wind blows" modifies *bend* by telling when they bend. Because this clause is a modifier and depends on some other word (*bend*), it is called a Dependent Clause, or Subordinate Clause. "The trees bend" is called the Independent Clause, or the Principal Clause. Such sentences as the third are called Complex Sentences.

3. A Clause is a proposition used as part of a sentence.

4. An Independent Clause is a clause not dependent on any word, and contains the principal proposition.

5. A Dependent Clause is a clause used as a modifier, or as some part of speech, and contains the subordinate proposition.

6. According to form sentences are divided into Simple, Compound, and Complex.

7. A Simple Sentence is a sentence that contains but one proposition.

The subject, the predicate, or both may be compound.

8. A Compound Sentence is a sentence that contains two or more independent clauses.

The connective between the clauses of a compound sentence is usually *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, etc.

9. A Complex Sentence is a sentence that contains an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

The connective between the clauses of a complex sentence is usually *although, if, though, unless, when, where, while, who, which, that*, etc.

10. Write a compound sentence, connecting the two clauses by —

and but or

11. Write a complex sentence, connecting the two clauses by —

when while if because

LESSON 7

SENTENCES TO BE CLASSIFIED

1. Classify these sentences as to form and as to use:

1. Sleep never lies where care lodges.
2. The enemy came while we tarried.
3. Keep your own secret if you wish others to keep it.
4. Golden palaces break men's rest, and purple robes cause watchful nights.
5. Prosperity asks for fidelity, but adversity demands it.
6. Vice, virtue, and time never stand still.
7. Knowledge is the reward of pains and patience.
8. He who is on his guard is most safe from danger.

2. Write a compound sentence having three clauses.

3. Write a complex sentence connecting the two clauses by —

where although unless who though

LESSON 8

SUBJECT, PREDICATE: SIMPLE, COMPLETE.—
ANALYSIS

1. You have already learned that a pronoun is used as a noun, and later you will learn that a phrase or a clause may be used as a noun. All these words or combinations of words that are used as nouns are called Substantives.

2. A Substantive is a noun or pronoun, or any phrase or clause used as a noun.

3. Notice this sentence:

The shadow of human life is traced upon a golden ground of immortal hope.

The complete subject is "the shadow of human life," but the simple subject is the noun *shadow*. The complete predicate is "is traced upon a golden ground of immortal hope," but the simple predicate is the verb *is traced*.

4. The Simple Subject is the substantive representing that of which something is said.

5. The Complete Subject is the simple subject with all its modifiers.

6. The Simple Predicate is the verb that expresses what is said of the subject.

7. The Complete Predicate is the simple predicate with its complement and modifiers.

8. Notice the analysis of these sentences:

1. The royal family rode to church in a beautiful carriage.

This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which "the royal family" is the complete subject, *family* is the simple subject, modified by

the and *royal*, adjectives. "Rode to church in a beautiful carriage" is the complete predicate, *rode* is the simple predicate, modified by "to church" and "in a beautiful carriage," two prepositional, adverb phrases. (For the present it is not necessary to dispose of the separate words of a phrase.)

2. Very often men do not keep their promises.

This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which *men* is the subject. "Very often do not keep their promises" is the complete predicate; *do keep* is the simple predicate, modified by *often* and *not*, adverbs. *Often* is modified by *very*, an adverb. *Promises* is the object, modified by *their*, a pronoun in the possessive case. (Since *men* is both the simple and the complete subject, we need use only the term *subject*.)

9. Analyze these sentences:

1. The spirit of Christmas was in the air.
2. Oft did the harvest to their sickle yield.
3. Swiftly fly the twilight hours.
4. Great misfortunes often produce great minds.
5. Mighty things from small beginnings grow.

LESSON 9

ANALYSIS

I. Notice the analysis of these sentences:

1. Measure life by good deeds.

This is a simple, imperative sentence, of which *you* understood is the subject, "measure life by good deeds" is the complete predicate, *measure* is the simple predicate, modified by "by good deeds," a prepositional, adverb phrase. *Life* is the object. (When a word is not expressed in a sentence, we say it is understood.)

2. Earthquakes and fire destroyed the city.

This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which *earthquakes* and *fire* are the compound subject connected by *and*, a conjunction.

"Destroyed the city" is the complete predicate, *destroyed* is the simple predicate, and *city* is the object, modified by *the*, an adjective.

3. The language of truth is simple.

This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which "the language of truth" is the complete subject, *language* is the simple subject, modified by *the*, an adjective, and by *of truth*, a prepositional, adjective phrase. *Is simple* is the complete predicate, *is* is the simple predicate, and *simple*, an adjective modifying the subject, is the attribute complement.

4. The path to the honors of life is rough and stormy.

This is a simple declarative sentence, of which "The — ¹ life" is the complete subject, *path* is the simple subject, modified by *the*, an adjective, and by "to — life," a prepositional, adjective phrase. "Is rough and stormy" is the complete predicate, *is* is the simple predicate, *rough* and *stormy*, adjectives modifying the subject, are the compound attribute complement, connected by *and*, a conjunction.

5. A mighty man was he. (He was a mighty man.)

This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which *he* is the subject, "was — man" is the complete predicate, *was* is the simple predicate, and *man*, a noun meaning the same person as the subject, is the attribute complement, modified by *a* and *mighty*, adjectives.

2. Analyze these sentences :

1. A man's life is an index to his heart.
2. Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth.
3. With the light of day returned their cares and anxieties.
4. A well-bred man is quiet in dress, respectful to every-body, kind to the weak, and helpful to the feeble.
5. A person of experience is usually a safe guide.
6. Little minds are tamed and subdued by misfortune.
7. A mighty realm is the land of dreams.
8. Fame is the fragrance of heroic deeds.
9. The woods against the sky their giant branches tossed.

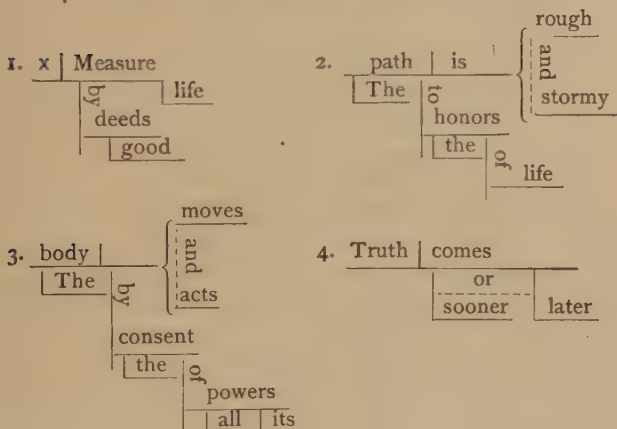
¹ The dash means that all the words of the sentence between *the* and *life* are to be read.

LESSON 10

DIAGRAMMING

I. Notice these diagrams:

1. Measure life by good deeds.
2. The path to the honors of life is rough and stormy.
3. The body moves and acts by the consent of all its parts.
4. Truth comes sooner or later.



2. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 2, lesson 9.

3. Diagram these sentences:

1. Roger Williams left Massachusetts and founded Rhode Island.
2. A complete success or an entire failure was anticipated.
3. An evil and dishonest course of life brings many troubles. (*An* modifies *course*.)
4. Man has a daily work of body and mind.
5. The full moon threw its silvery light upon the waters of the lake.
6. After many fruitless attempts he abandoned the enterprise.

LESSON 11

ANALYSIS, DIAGRAMING

1. Notice the analysis of this compound sentence :

Contentment is natural wealth, but luxury is artificial poverty.

This is a compound, declarative sentence having two independent clauses connected by *but*, a conjunction.

(Now analyze each clause as if it were a simple sentence.)

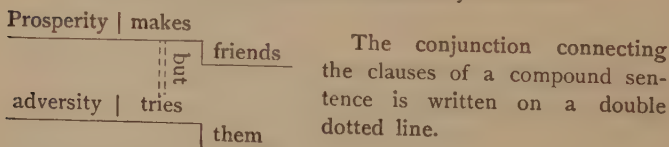
2. Analyze these sentences :

1. The north wind doth blow, and we shall have snow.
2. Talent is something, but tact is everything.
3. The sun shines, the birds sing, the flowers bloom,
and the children are glad.
4. Straws swim, but pearls lie at the bottom.

Notice that the clauses are separated by a comma. If the clauses have parts separated by commas, the clauses themselves are usually separated by a semicolon.

3. Notice this diagram :

Prosperity makes friends, but adversity tries them.



4. Diagram these sentences :

1. Night has passed, and morning has come.
2. Hamilton smote the rock of national resources, and
abundant streams of revenue gushed forth.
3. Plants live, grow, and die ; but they do not feel.
(Notice the semicolon.)
4. Individuals sometimes forgive, but society never does
(forgive).

5. Light gains come quick, but great gains come now and then.
6. Prayer leads the heart to God, and he always listens.

5. One or more of the clauses of a compound sentence may be complex; as —

1. I read the book that you have, but I did not like it.
2. The word that is heard passes away; but the letter that is written remains.

LESSON 12

ADJECTIVE CLAUSE: ANALYSIS

I. Notice these sentences :

1. The house on the hill was burned.
2. The house that stood on the hill was burned.

In the first sentence the adjective phrase "on the hill" tells what house was burned, and in the second sentence the clause "that stood on the hill" tells what house was burned. "That stood on the hill" is a clause because it is a proposition, and is used as part of a sentence. Since the clause modifies the noun *house*, it is an Adjective Clause.

"The house that stood on the hill was burned" is a complex sentence, of which "The house was burned" is the independent clause, and "that stood on the hill" is the dependent clause. *That* is the subject of *stood*, and is also the connective between the two clauses.

2. An Adjective Clause is a clause used to modify a noun or a pronoun.

3. Name the adjective clause in each of these sentences :

1. The book that lies on the table is a reader.
2. I know the man who built this boat.
3. He who cannot read needs a teacher.
4. The evil that men do lives after them

4. Notice the analysis of this sentence :

He who would find pearls should dive deep.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which "He — pearls" is the complete subject, and "should dive deep" is the complete predicate. "He should dive deep" is the independent clause, of which *he* is the subject, modified by "who — pearls," a dependent adjective clause, of which *who* is the subject and also the connective; "would find pearls" is the complete predicate, *would find* is the simple predicate, and *pearls* is the object. "Should dive deep" is the complete predicate of the independent clause; *should dive* is the simple predicate, modified by *deep*, an adverb.

5. Analyze the sentences in paragraph 3.

6. Analyze these sentences :

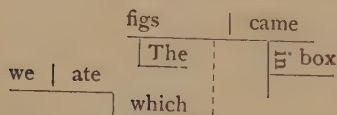
1. The storm that came so suddenly did much damage.
2. The eye, which sees all things, cannot see itself.
3. He who has conquered doubt and fear has conquered failure.

LESSON 13

ADJECTIVE CLAUSE: DIAGRAMING

1. Notice this diagram :

The figs which we ate came in a neat box.



The dependent clause is connected to the word it modifies through the connecting word *which*.

(Hereafter modifiers will frequently be omitted from the model diagrams.)

2. Diagram the sentences in paragraphs 3 and 6, lesson 12.

3. Diagram these sentences :

1. Suffering ceases for him who is pure.
2. The manners that a man has shape his fortunes.
3. Death lifts the veil that hides a brighter sphere.
4. A man that is strong is not always brave.
5. The heart of Robert Bruce, which was preserved in a silver case, was consigned to the care of Douglas.

LESSON 14**ADJECTIVE CLAUSE: PUNCTUATION, ANALYSIS,
DIAGRAMING****1. Examine again the sentences in paragraph 3 of the preceding lesson.**

You will notice that the dependent clause in each of the first four is closely connected with the word it modifies. For instance, in the third sentence the statement is not made that death lifts just any veil, but the particular veil that hides a brighter sphere. In the fourth sentence the statement is made that some particular man — the one that is strong — is not always brave. Notice that the dependent clauses of the first four sentences are not set off by commas.

Now notice the fifth sentence. The clause "which was preserved in a silver case" does not definitely limit *heart*; it does not tell what heart was consigned to Douglas, because Bruce had but one heart; it is added almost by way of parenthesis, and may be omitted without spoiling the sense. Instead of "which was preserved in a silver case," we might say "and it was preserved in a silver case." Notice the use of the comma in this sentence.

2. The adjective clause is not usually set off by the comma when it closely follows and limits (restricts) the word it modifies; but when the clause is not closely connected with the word modified, or is used almost parenthetically, it is usually set off by the comma.

3. Write a complex sentence having an adjective clause connected with the independent clause by —

who that which whom

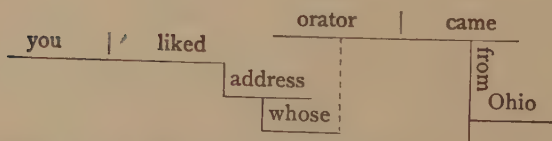
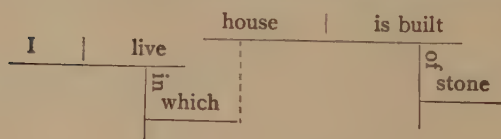
Carefully examine the sentences you have just written and decide whether the dependent clauses should be set off by commas or not.

4. Analyze these sentences :

1. The Emperor of Russia is called the Czar.
2. A rare old plant is the ivy green.
3. The fur which warms a monarch once warmed a bear.

5. Notice these diagrams :

1. The house in which I live is built of stone.
2. The orator whose address you liked came from Ohio.



6. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 4.

7. Diagram these sentences :

1. Invite the gentlemen of whom you spoke.
2. The lady whose house we occupy gives money to the poor.
3. Beauty is the mark that God sets on virtue.
4. He who praises everybody praises nobody.
5. Boys that are honest will be respected.
6. Charles, who is an honest boy, found the pocket-book.

LESSON 15

ADVERB CLAUSE: ANALYSIS

1. Notice this sentence :

The pupils entered the room when the bell rang.

The clause "when the bell rang" modifies *entered*, telling when the pupils entered. Since it modifies a verb, it is called an *Adverb Clause*.

2. An Adverb Clause is a clause used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

3. In each of these sentences name the adverb clause, and tell what word it modifies. (The connecting words are printed in italics.)

1. The United States had two wars with England *while* George III was king.
2. He lives *where* it never rains.
3. Napoleon was defeated *because* Grouchy was late.
4. You will not succeed *unless* you persevere.
5. The shadows grow longer *as* evening approaches.
6. *If* spring has no blossoms, autumn will have no fruit.

In this sentence, the dependent clause comes first.

In the first and fifth sentences the adverb clause denotes time; in the second, it denotes place; in the third, cause; in the fourth and sixth, condition. When the connective is *though* or *although*, the adverb clause usually denotes concession.

4. Notice this sentence :

When did he come?

Before analyzing this sentence it should be changed to a declarative sentence: He did come when. *When* is an adverb of time (interrogative adverb of time) modifying *did come*. If the sentence is used as the dependent clause of a complex sentence, *when* will still be an adverb; as, "It was morning when he came." *When* modifies *came*, but it is also the connecting word. Since it is used

both as an adverb and a connective, it is called a **Conjunctive Adverb**. The most common conjunctive adverbs are *where*, *when*, *while*, *whither*, and *as*, but they are conjunctive adverbs only when they are used as connecting words.

5. Notice the analysis of this sentence :

I am not solitary while I read, though nobody is with me.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which *I* is the subject, and the remainder of the sentence is the complete predicate. "I am not solitary" is the independent clause, of which *I* is the subject, "am not solitary" is the complete predicate, *am* is the simple predicate, modified by *not*, an adverb. *Solitary*, an adjective modifying the subject, is the attribute complement. *Am* is also modified by "while I read," a dependent adverb clause of time, of which *I* is the subject, *read* is the predicate, modified by *while*, a conjunctive adverb used as the connective. *Am* is further modified by "though nobody is with me," a dependent adverb clause of concession, of which *nobody* is the subject, "is with me" is the complete predicate, *is* is the simple predicate, modified by *with me*, a prepositional adverb phrase. *Though*, a conjunction, is the connective.

6. Analyze these sentences :

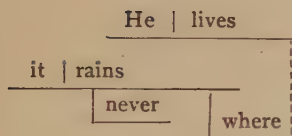
1. Come this evening if you have time.
2. They crossed where the water was shallow.
3. Though everybody admired him, few loved him.
4. Love follows the kind-hearted man wherever he goes.
(*Wherever* is a conjunctive adverb.)
5. A laugh is too dearly bought when it is purchased at the expense of virtue.
6. You can speak well when your tongue delivers the message of your heart.

LESSON 16

ADVERB CLAUSE: DIAGRAMING

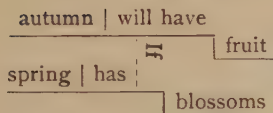
1. Notice these diagrams :

1. He lives where it never rains.



The conjunctive adverb is written under the word it modifies, and is connected by a dotted line to the word the clause modifies.

2. If spring has no blossoms, autumn will have no fruit.



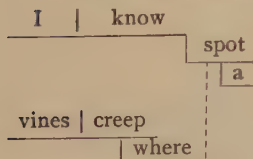
The conjunction is written on a dotted line connecting the predicate of the dependent clause and the word in the independent clause modified by the dependent clause.

2. Diagram these sentences :

- Confidence cannot dwell where selfishness is porter at the gate.
- Whither thou goest, I will go.
- Printing was unknown when Homer wrote the "Iliad."
(*Unknown* is an adjective.)
- While the bridegroom tarried, they all slumbered and slept. (*All* modifies *they*.)
- I am not solitary while I read, though nobody is with me.
- Although it is very late, the train has not arrived.

3. Notice this sentence :

I know a spot where the wild vines creep.



The dependent clause "Where the wild vines creep" is an adjective clause.

4. Diagram these sentences :

- By the banks of "Bonny Doon" stands the cottage where Robert Burns was born.
- Youth is the time when the seeds of character are sown.

3. This is the place where the battle was fought.
4. Great is truth, and mighty above all things.
5. Each heart has its haunted chamber,
When the silent moonlight falls.
6. Flashed all their sabers bare.

LESSON 17

ADVERB CLAUSE: PUNCTUATION, REVIEW

1. Notice the punctuation of these sentences:

1. When Homer wrote the "Iliad," printing was unknown.
2. Printing was unknown when Homer wrote the "Iliad."

You will observe that in the first sentence the dependent clause comes first, and that it is set off by a comma; but in the second sentence the dependent clause closely follows the word it modifies, and no comma is used.

2. An adverb clause is set off by a comma, unless it closely follows the word it modifies.

3. Give the reason for the use or the omission of the comma in the sentences of paragraph 6, lesson 15, and paragraph 2, lesson 16.

4. Use each of these words as the connective between the clauses of a complex sentence:

when whenever unless because although

5. Write a complex sentence containing an adverb clause of —

1. Time.
2. Place.
3. Cause or reason.
4. Concession.

6. Write a sentence containing an adjective clause —

1. Modifying the subject.
2. Modifying the object.

LESSON 18

NOUN PHRASE, NOUN CLAUSE

1. Examine these sentences:

1. To abuse animals is wrong. (What is wrong?)
2. I like to read good books. (What do I like?)

You will easily decide that "to abuse animals" is the subject of the first sentence, and that "to read good books" is the object of *like* in the second sentence. Since these phrases are used as nouns, they are called *Noun Phrases*.

2. A Noun Phrase is a phrase used as a noun.

3. Notice these sentences:

1. That the world moves was believed by Galileo. (What was believed by Galileo?)
2. Plato taught that the soul is immortal. (What did Plato teach?)

In the first sentence the clause "that the world moves" is the subject of *was believed*, and in the second sentence the clause "that the soul is immortal" is the object of *taught*.

Since these clauses are used as nouns, they are called *Noun Clauses*.

4. A Noun Clause is a clause used as a noun.

5. Pick out the noun clause in each of these sentences, and tell whether it is used as the subject, object, or attribute complement:

1. Mahomet found that the mountain would not move.
2. That Arnold was a traitor was now clear enough.
3. I have been considering how an acorn becomes an oak.
4. The statement was "No man can serve two masters."

"No man can serve two masters" is a noun clause used as attribute complement.

5. The general belief is, that the Northmen discovered America.
6. That Hannibal was a brave general is disputed by few.
7. The last words of Lord Nelson were, "I have done my duty."
8. We learn from the Declaration of Independence that all men are created equal.
9. "A rolling stone gathers no moss," says an old proverb.
10. The poet Southey tells how the water comes down at Lodore.

6. Write a sentence containing a noun clause used as —

1. The subject.
2. The object.
3. The attribute complement.

7. Write a sentence containing a noun clause having —

1. A quotation.
2. A divided quotation.

LESSON 19

NOUN CLAUSE: ANALYSIS

1. Notice the analysis of this sentence:

That we guard our liberty with vigilance is a sacred trust.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which "that — vigilance" is the complete subject, and "is — trust" is the complete predicate. The entire sentence is the independent clause, of which "That — vigilance," a dependent noun clause, is the subject. Of this dependent clause, *that* is the introductory word, *we* is the subject, "guard — vigilance" is the complete predicate, *guard* is the simple predicate, modified by *with vigilance*, a prepositional adverb phrase, *liberty* is the object, modified by *our*, a pronoun in the pos-

sessive case. Of the independent clause the complete predicate is "is a sacred trust," *is* is the simple predicate, *trust*, a noun denoting the same thing as the subject, is the attribute complement, modified by *a* and *sacred*, adjectives.

The entire sentence is the independent clause when the dependent clause is the subject, object, or attribute complement.

2. Analyze these sentences :

1. That truth will finally prevail should encourage us in our trials.
2. The plea then was, "Taxation without representation is tyranny."
3. "Where are all the bad buried ?" inquired Lamb.

People or some similar noun may be supplied after *bad*, or *bad* may be used as a noun.

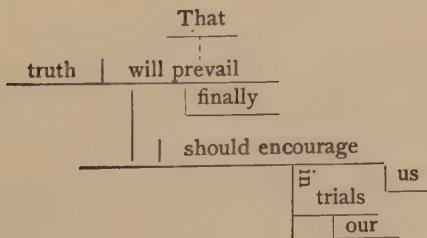
4. The Apostle advised that a man should be angry and sin not.
5. "Diligence is the mother of good luck," said Franklin.
6. That very many lost their lives in the earthquake was the general belief.

LESSON 20

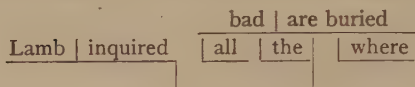
NOUN CLAUSE : DIAGRAMS

1. Notice these diagrams :

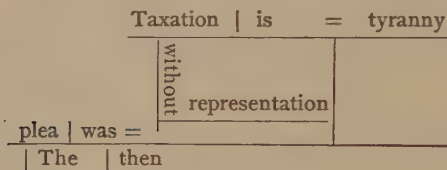
1. That truth will finally prevail should encourage us in our trials.



2. "Where are all the bad buried?" inquired Lamb.



3. The plea then was, "Taxation without representation is tyranny."



2. Diagram these sentences:

1. Columbus did not know that he had discovered a new continent.
2. "Good words butter no parsnips" is a proverb.
3. That methodical study strengthens the mind is well established.
4. Our constant concern should be, that we always do our duty.
5. Mr. Page's conclusion was, that the maximum of discipline is the minimum of punishment.
6. I knew that it was he.
7. I do not understand why he failed.
8. He that flattereth deceiveth his neighbor.
9. Those who know say the result is uncertain.
10. A good thing is known when it is lost.
11. The house where Shakespeare was born still stands.

LESSON 21

NOUN CLAUSE: PUNCTUATION, REVIEW

1. A Noun Clause is set off by a comma —

1. When it is used as the attribute complement.
2. When it is used as the subject, if it is long, or if it ends with a verb.

2. Give the reason for the use or the omission of the comma in the sentences of paragraph 2, lesson 20.

3. Notice the quotation marks in these sentences :

1. Lamb inquired, "Where are all the bad buried ?"

This sentence is declarative, but the dependent clause is interrogative. The quotation marks include the interrogation point because the quotation is a question.

2. Did you hear the minister say, "Love your enemies" ?

This sentence is interrogative, but the dependent clause is imperative. The quotation does not include the interrogation point because the quotation is not a question.

3. The ever-recurring question is "What shall we do with our failures ?"

Is the preceding a declarative sentence ? If so, why does it not close with a period ?

4. "Where shall we spend vacation ?" was the question asked by the boys.

4. Analyze these sentences :

1. "Get on the train," said the conductor.
2. "Strike while the iron is hot," is a well-known proverb.
3. "He that borrows the aid of an equal understanding," said Burke, "doubles his own."
4. The government that is hated seldom lasts.

LESSON 22

NOUNS : CLASSIFICATION

1. A Noun is the name of anything.

2. A Proper Noun is the name of a particular person, place, or thing ; as, William, Chicago, Tom.

A proper noun should begin with a capital letter.

3. A Common Noun is a general name, and may be applied to any one of a class ; as, boy, city, horse.

4. Select the nouns in these sentences, and divide them into proper and common :

1. He lives at Harper's Ferry, Virginia.
2. Albany and Rochester are cities of New York.
3. The Natural Bridge is in Virginia.
4. The Garden of the Gods is in Colorado.

5. Some nouns are the names of groups of persons or things ; as, crew, herd, class. Such nouns are called Collective Nouns.

6. A Collective Noun is a name applied to a group of objects.

7. Some nouns are applied to qualities, conditions, or actions of persons or things ; as, beauty, whiteness, walking.

We can think of beauty, whiteness, and walking without thinking of any particular person or thing that is beautiful or white or is walking. Such nouns are called Abstract Nouns.

8. An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality, condition, or action ; as, strength, warmth, jumping.

Many abstract nouns are derived from adjectives and verbs ; as, kindness from kind, singing from sing.

9. All collective nouns and abstract nouns are common nouns.

10. Name the collective and the abstract nouns found in this list :

drove	wisdom	assembly	choir
politeness	jury	virtue	cheerfulness
reading	crowd	pity	congress

11. Write a collective noun that names a collection of —

bees
fish

soldiers
wolves

sailors
geese

buffaloes
thieves

12. Write an abstract noun derived from —

beautiful
high

sweet
wide

proud
believe

deceive
ride

LESSON 23

NOUNS: GENDER

1. Several parts of speech are subject to changes in form, meaning, or use; as, duke, duchess; book, books; boy, boy's; old, older; run, runs; soon, sooner. These changes are called Properties, or Modifications.

2. The Properties of a part of speech are its changes in form, meaning, or use.

3. The Properties of nouns and pronouns are Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

4. Gender is that property of a noun or pronoun which denotes the sex of the object represented.

5. There are four genders: Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, and Common.

6. Masculine Gender is applied to words denoting male objects; as, brother, he, nephew.

7. Feminine Gender is applied to words denoting female objects; as, sister, she, niece.

8. Neuter Gender is applied to words denoting objects neither male nor female; as, field, it, city.

9. Common Gender is applied to words denoting objects either male or female, or both; as, parent, they, companions.

10. Notice these nouns:

bachelor, maid; count, countess; manservant, maidservant; clubman, clubwoman.

11. The gender of nouns is indicated in three ways: by using different words, by using different endings, and by placing different words before or after nouns of the common or the neuter gender.

12. Learn the masculine and feminine forms of these nouns, and notice the formation of each:

<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
abbot	abbess	heir	heiress
actor	actress	hero	heroine
administrator	administratrix	lad	lass
archduke	archduchess	lion	lioness
bachelor	maid, spinster	lord	lady
baron	baroness	marquis	marchioness
beau	belle	Mr.	Mrs.
bridegroom	bride	negro	negress
count, earl	countess	nephew	niece
czar	czarina	peer	peeress
drake	duck	prince	princess
duke	duchess	prior	prioress
emperor	empress	shepherd	shepherdess
friar, monk	nun	sultan	sultana
gander	goose	swain	nymph
gentleman	{ gentlewoman	testator	testatrix
	{ lady	viscount	viscountess
giant	giantess	widower	widow
hart	roe	wizard	witch

LESSON 24

NOUNS : PERSON, NUMBER

1. Person is that property of a noun or pronoun which denotes the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person spoken of.

2. There are three persons : the First, the Second, and the Third.

3. The First Person denotes the speaker ; as, "*We*, the *members* of this society, do make this request."

A noun is in the first person only when used in connection with a pronoun that refers to the speaker.

4. The Second Person denotes the person spoken to ; as, "*Margaret*, why did *you* delay ?"

5. The Third Person denotes the person or thing spoken of ; as, "*Bacon* lived in *England*," "That *horse* lost one of *its shoes*."

6. Make a sentence containing —

1. A noun, first person.
2. A noun, second person.
3. A pronoun, neuter, third person.
4. A pronoun, second person.

7. Number is that property of a noun or pronoun by which it denotes one or more than one.

8. There are two numbers : the Singular and the Plural.

9. The Singular Number denotes but one.

10. The Plural Number denotes more than one.

11. Most nouns form the plural by adding *s* to the singular.

12. Nouns ending in *s*, *z*, *x*, *ch*, and *sh* form the plural by adding *es*.

13. Notice the plural of these nouns :

toy, toys ; lobby, lobbies.

Notice that in *toy* *y* is preceded by a vowel, while in *lobby* it is preceded by a consonant:

14. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant form the plural by changing *y* to *i* and adding *es*. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel form the plural by adding *s*.

15. Write the plural of each of these words :

grass	sky	enemy	deputy
theory	tax	alley	artery
chimney	ally	tory	sketch

LESSON 25

NUMBER — Continued

1. Notice these singular and plural nouns :

folio, folios ; echo, echoes.

Observe that in *folio* *o* is preceded by a vowel, and in *echo* it is preceded by a consonant.

2. Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel form the plural by adding *s*.

3. Most nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant form the plural by adding *es*, but some add *s* only.

The following are among those that add *s* only :

canto	solo	piano	sirocco
halo	memento	albino	quarto
alto	soprano	lasso	octavo

4. Most nouns ending in *f* and *fe* form the plural by adding *s*. The following change *f* and *fe* to *v* and add *es*:

beef	knife	self	wharf
calf	leaf	sheaf	wife
elf	life	shelf	wolf
half	loaf	thief	

5. Some nouns form the plural irregularly; as,

child	children	mouse	mice
foot	feet	ox	oxen
goose	geese	tooth	teeth
man	men	woman	women

6. Write the plural of each of these words:

volcano	roof	loaf	life
cameo	tomato	louse	monkey
buffalo	tapestry	hero	veto
woman	scarf	potato	halo
trio	studio	quality	mystery
canto	tornado	shelf	muff

LESSON 26

NUMBER — Continued

1. Letters, figures, and signs form the plural by adding the apostrophe and *s*; as,

1. Dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s.
2. There are six 2's and seven + 's on the board.

2. Compounds of *man* form the plural by changing *man* to *men*; as, Englishman, Englishmen.

The nouns *German*, *Musselman*, *talisman*, and *Turkoman*, not being compounds of *man*, form the plural by adding *s*.

3. Compound words and combinations of words used as nouns pluralize the base, or principal word, of the expression ; as,

son-in-law	sons-in-law
Queen of England	Queens of England
Duke of Wellington	Dukes of Wellington
brigadier general	brigadier generals

Notice that *son* is the base, modified by *in law*. In the other expressions the bases are *Queen*, *Duke*, and *general*.

4. Write the plural of —

Frenchman	daughter-in-law	man-of-war
second lieutenant	captain of cavalry	governor of Ohio

5. The following nouns are always plural :

ashes	scissors	oats	tongs
dregs	trousers	pinchers	bellows
snuffers	cattle	shears	scales (to weigh)
mumps	victuals	tweezers	vespers
annals	vitals	nuptials	pincers

6. Some nouns have no plural :

gold	silver	wheat	corn
molasses	copper	sugar	cotton

Some of these nouns may be used in the plural when different kinds are meant ; as, sugars, coffees, cottons.

7. Some nouns have two plural forms with different meanings. Among these are :

brother	brothers (of a family)	brethren (of a church)
cloth	cloths (pieces of cloth)	clothes (garments)
genius	geniuses (men of genius)	genii (spirits)
head	heads (part of the body)	head (of cattle)
sail	sails (pieces of canvas)	sail (number of vessels)
shot	shots (number of discharges)	shot (balls of lead)

8. Use in sentences both plurals of each of three singulars in the list given in the preceding paragraph.

LESSON 27

NUMBER — Continued

1. A few nouns have the same form in both numbers ;
as,

deer	sheep	trout	heathen
series	species	grouse	salmon
swine	carp		

2. Some nouns are plural in form, but are singular in meaning ; as,

news	gallows	measels	pains (care)
amends	mathematics (and other words ending in <i>ics</i>)		

Athletics is usually considered plural.

3. Write the plural of each of these nouns :

ashes	gold	series	politics
portico	species	sheep	4
mosquito	cargo	company	Scotchman

4. Write the singular of each of these nouns :

mumps	oxen	swine ¹	cattle
wages	lilies	ponies	menservants

5. Give the rule for forming the plural of each class of the following nouns, and write the plural of two words in each class:

1. Ending in *y* preceded by a vowel.
2. Ending in *y* preceded by a consonant.
3. Ending in *o* preceded by a vowel.
4. Ending in *o* preceded by a consonant.
5. Ending in *f* or *fe*.

6. Use each of these words in two oral sentences, singular in one sentence, and plural in the other :

grouse	series	salmon
deer	swine	heathen

¹ See *Manual*.

LESSON 28

NOUNS: REVIEW

1. Name the gender, person, and number of each noun in these sentences:

1. A drowning man will catch at a straw.
2. Friendship should be strengthened by adversity.
3. Motley wrote "The Rise of the Dutch Republic."
4. Both armies went into camp at the foot of the mountain.

Collective nouns are neuter, although the individuals composing them may be masculine or feminine.

5. Switzerland is noted for its lofty mountains and beautiful lakes.
6. Several of the boys of our school have the measles.
7. The molasses was in a glass pitcher.
8. Some people think women should take no interest in politics.

2. Name the collective and the abstract nouns found in the preceding paragraph.

3. Of the sentences in paragraph 1, analyze the fourth, the fifth, and the eighth.

LESSON 29

REVIEW. — DIAGRAMING

1. Write the masculine of —

sultana	witch	countess	czarina
lass	heroine	duchess	nun

2. Write the feminine of —

drake	abbot	hart	nephew
heir	bachelor	peer	tiger

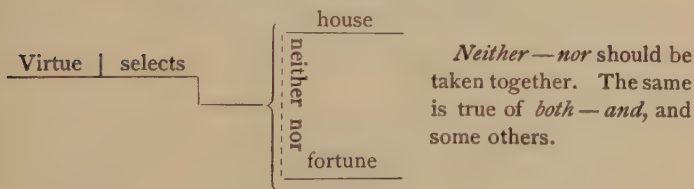
3. Use in one sentence a word of each of the four genders.

4. Fill each blank with the name of the objects forming the collective noun :

herd of —	flock of —	gang of —	swarm of —
fleet of —	suite of —	suit of —	regiment of —
tribe of —	crew of —	team of —	squad of —
yoke of —	bevy of —	bunch of —	family of —

5. Notice this diagram :

Virtue selects neither house nor fortune.



6. Diagram these sentences :

1. The idler lost a good position by inattention to business.
2. Backward and forward before the gate walked the watchful sentinel.
3. He that by the plow would thrive,
Must either hold or drive.
4. The soil of the valley is both deep and fertile.
5. The cat in gloves catches no mice.
6. Beautiful thoughts of all kinds crystallize into habits of
grace and kindness.
7. Be watchful, thoughtful, and resolute.

LESSON 30

CASE

1. Case is that property of a noun or pronoun which shows its relation to other words.

2. There are three cases: Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

3. The Nominative Case of a noun or pronoun denotes its use as subject or as attribute complement.

Other uses of the nominative case will be given later.

4. The Possessive Case of a noun or pronoun usually denotes its use as naming the possessor or owner.

5. The Objective Case of a noun or pronoun denotes its use as object of a verb or preposition.

Other uses of the objective case will be given later.

6. Name the case of each noun and pronoun in these sentences:

1. The rosy morn appears.
2. A great victory was won.
3. Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown.
4. The peach is a delicious fruit.
5. That story I well remember.
6. Josephus wrote a history of the Jews.
7. His name shall be Prince of Peace.
8. Each star has its own place in the heavens.
9. A fox barks not when he would steal the lamb.
10. Autumn brings many fruits to us.
11. How poor are they that have not patience!
12. Night's dreams trace on memory's wall, shadows of the thoughts of day.

7. Diagram sentences 8, 9, 11, 12 of the preceding paragraph.

8. Write a sentence, using the word *printer*—

1. In the nominative, subject.
2. In the nominative, attribute complement.
3. In the objective, object of a verb.
4. In the objective, object of a preposition.

LESSON 31

CASE — Continued

1. A noun used as the name of a person or thing addressed, or used independently, is in the nominative case; as,

1. *Carrie*, come here.
2. The *smith*, a mighty man is he.

In this sentence *he* is the subject, *man* is the attribute complement, and *smith* is used independently.

2. Carefully read these sentences :

1. Milton, the poet, was blind.
2. We heard Sherwood, the pianist.

In the first sentence, *poet* means the same person as the subject *Milton*, but it is not an attribute complement because it does not complete the predicate. *Poet* explains *Milton* by telling who or what he was, and is in the same case as *Milton* by what grammarians call Apposition.

In the second sentence, *pianist* is in the objective case in apposition with *Sherwood*.

Apposition means placed near.

3. A noun or pronoun used to explain another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing is, by apposition, in the same case as the word explained.

A noun or pronoun in apposition is called an Appositive.

4. Select the appositives in these sentences, and name the case of each one :

1. Cicero, the orator, was a Roman.
2. Whittier, the Quaker poet, wrote "Snow-Bound," an interesting poem.
3. They live in New York, the largest city in America.

4. The stranger was Washington, the commander of the army.
5. I, John, saw these things.
6. Stephenson, the celebrated engineer, lived in England.
7. The winds, nature's grim playmates, slept.
8. Hope, life's soothing balm, is our support.
9. The people of Rome demanded the expulsion of Tarquin, the last Roman king.

Examine the punctuation of the preceding sentences, and you will notice that —

5. An appositive is usually set off by a comma.

If the appositive is short, and if it is used merely as part of a name, the comma is omitted ; as,

Uncle James was a sailor.

But notice this : James, my uncle, was a sailor.

6. Use each of these words as an appositive :

judge tailor editor Jefferson

LESSON 32

ANALYSIS, DIAGRAMING

1. Notice the analysis of this sentence :

Cicero, the orator, was a Roman.

This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which "Cicero, the orator," is the complete subject, *Cicero* is the simple subject, modified by *orator*, a noun in apposition. *Orator* is modified by *the*, an adjective. "Was a Roman" is the complete predicate, *was* is the simple predicate, *Roman*, a noun meaning the same person as the subject, is the attribute complement, modified by *a*, an adjective.

2. Analyze the sentences of paragraph 4, lesson 31, having even numbers.

3. Notice these diagrams :

1. Whittier (poet) | wrote
 _____ the Quaker _____ Snow-Bound (poem)

2. Carrie
 _____ x | come
 _____ here

4. Diagram the sentences having odd numbers in paragraph 4, lesson 31.

LESSON 33

CASE : SUBJECT OF INFINITIVE. — ANALYSIS

1. Notice these phrases :

1. To town.

2. To walk.

The word after *to* in the first phrase is a noun, but *walk*, the word after *to* in the second phrase, is a verb. The second phrase is called an *Infinitive*. Each of the following is an infinitive: *to see*, *to have seen*, *to be seen*, *to have been seen*.

The definition of the infinitive will be given later, but for the present you may remember that the infinitive is the form of the verb used with *to*.

2. Write some infinitives of *take* ; of *run*.

3. Examine these sentences :

1. I wish to walk.

2. I wish my friend to walk.

In the first sentence *I*, the subject, names the one who is to do the walking, but in the second sentence *I*, the subject, does not name the one who is to walk ; my friend is to do the walking. The infinitive *to walk*, then, has a subject, a word that names the person or thing that is to perform the act expressed by the verb.

The subject of the first infinitive is *I*, and it is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the proposition; that is, it is the subject of the verb *wish*. In the second sentence, *I*, the subject of the proposition, is in the nominative case, of course, but *friend*, the subject of the infinitive, is in the objective case. This will be plainer if we use a pronoun instead of the noun *friend*: "I wish *him* to walk." Notice that we use *him*, the objective form, not *he*, the nominative form.

4. A noun or pronoun used as the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case, unless it is also the subject of the proposition.

5. In these sentences find each infinitive, name its subject, and give the case of the subject:

1. The father wishes his son to study grammar.
2. The son does not wish to study grammar.
3. The traveler expected to go to Europe.
4. The farmer wanted his horse to be saddled.
5. We expected them to return sooner.
6. I wish him to go to school.
7. I wish to go to school.

6. Let us examine these two sentences again:

1. I wish to go to school.
2. I wish him to go to school.

What do I wish in the first sentence? In the second sentence? What is the object of *wish* in the first sentence? In the second sentence?

The phrase "to go to school" is the object of *wish* in the first sentence, and the phrase "him to go to school" is the object of *wish* in the second sentence. Each of these phrases is a noun phrase in the objective case. Since "to go to school" begins with an infinitive, it is called an Infinitive Phrase.

7. An Infinitive Phrase is a phrase introduced by an infinitive.

8. Notice the analysis of this sentence :

I wish to go to school.

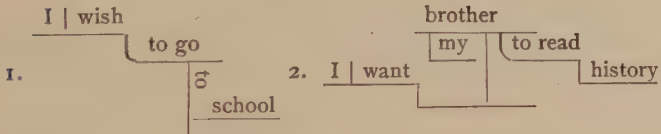
This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which *I* is the subject, "wish to go to school" is the complete predicate, *wish* is the simple predicate ; "to go to school," an infinitive noun phrase, is the object. *To go* is modified by *to school*, a prepositional adverb phrase. (Since an infinitive is a verb, its modifier is an adverb.)

9. Analyze sentences 2 and 3 of paragraph 5.

LESSON 34

DIAGRAMMING

1. Notice these diagrams :



The infinitive is written on a curved line.

The location of *to go* shows that it is the object of *wish*.

In the second, it is necessary to place the infinitive on a support in order to show that it has an expressed subject.

2. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 5, lesson 33.

3. Name the case of each noun and pronoun in these sentences :

1. In the best books, great men talk to us.
2. Flowers are the poetry of earth.
3. Daniel Boone, the pioneer of Kentucky, endured many hardships.
4. Mexico was conquered by Cortez, a Spaniard.
5. Wolfe captured Quebec, a city in Canada.
6. Soldiers, charge for the guns.
7. The guide wished the boys to be careful.

4. Write three sentences, each having an infinitive with an objective subject.

LESSON 35

FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE

1. Nouns form the possessive case by adding an apostrophe and *s*, except plural nouns ending in *s*, which add the apostrophe only; as,

man's, men's; boy's, boys'; child's, children's.

When you wish to write the possessive plural of a noun, write the plural first, then decide whether to add only the apostrophe or the apostrophe and *s*.

2. Write the possessive singular and the possessive plural of each of these nouns:

girl	lady	gentleman	ox
dog	bird	fox	pony

3. When the same thing belongs to two or more in common, the possessive sign is added only to the last; as,

1. Pratt and Johnson's store.
2. Robert and Henry's books.

"Robert's and Henry's books" means that some of the books belong to Robert and some to Henry.

4. When nouns are in apposition the possessive sign is added only to the one nearest the name of the object possessed; as,

1. Mr. Brown, the mayor's, proclamation.
2. The mayor, Mr. Brown's, proclamation.

5. Such nouns as *son-in-law*, *Duke of Wellington*, etc., use but one possessive sign, and add it to the last word; as,

1. The King of England's salary is large.
2. His father-in-law's home is in France.

6. The following sentences are all correct. Give the meaning of each sentence, and explain the use of the possessive sign.

1. These are Clarence and Harvey's books.
2. These are Clarence's and Harvey's books.
3. These are neither Clarence's nor Harvey's books.
4. Boone, the hunter's, life was full of adventure.
5. I bought this coat at Smith, the merchant's, store.
6. This happened neither in Lincoln's nor Grant's administration.
7. His daughter-in-law's home was burned in the great conflagration.

Such sentences as the fourth are correct, but it is better to say "The life of Boone, the hunter, was full of adventure."

7. Some of the following are incorrect. Correct where necessary, and give the reason for your changes.¹

1. Howard's, the philanthropist's, life was spent in alleviating the sufferings of others.
2. He did it at his mother's request, a kind lady.

Improve the arrangement of the above sentence.

3. The Bank of England was established in William's and Mary's reign.

William and Mary reigned at the same time — a joint reign.

4. Whittier's, the poet's, "Snow-Bound" is much admired.
5. This is Lane & Morgan's Latin grammar.
6. We use McGuffey's and Harper's readers.

Notice the use of & and *and* in the last two sentences.

¹ See *Manual*.

LESSON 36

POSSESSIVE CASE: REVIEW

1. Write two sentences, each containing two or more nouns denoting joint ownership.

2. Write two sentences, each containing two or more nouns denoting separate ownership.

3. Write a sentence containing the possessive singular of —

Captain of the company, Prince of India.

4. Write two sentences, each containing a noun in the possessive by apposition.

5. Change these phrases to the form of the possessive case :

1. The wages of one day = one day's wages.
2. The horses of the drivers.
3. The clothes of the children.
4. The eyes of the oxen.
5. The clothing of men and boys.
6. The wagon of Thomas and Henry.
7. The family of President Taft.
8. The house of my friend George.
9. The march of Alexander the Great.
10. The poems of Bryant or Whittier.
11. The fault of somebody else.
12. The interest of five years.
13. Cloaks for misses.
14. The home of both Lucy and Mary.
15. The home of Lucy or Mary.
16. A bazaar for ladies.
17. A store for farmers.
18. A store for a farmer.
19. Sleds for boys.

LESSON 37

INFLECTION : DECLENSION.—PARSING

1. You have already learned that several parts of speech change their form to indicate a change of use. This change is called *Inflection*.

2. Inflection is a change in the form of a word to indicate some change in its meaning or use.

The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called *Declension*, the inflection of adjectives is called *Comparison*, and the inflection of verbs is called *Conjugation*.

3. The Declension of a noun or pronoun is the orderly arrangement of its case forms in both numbers.

Study the declension of these nouns :

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
NOMINATIVE	bird	birds	man	men
POSSESSIVE	bird's	birds'	man's	men's
OBJECTIVE	bird	birds	man	men

4. Decline these nouns :

ox child lady horse

5. Parsing a word is naming the part of speech to which it belongs, its class or subdivision, all its properties, and its relations to other words.¹

6. Notice the parsing of these nouns :

1. Innocence is the charm of childhood.

Innocence is a noun, common ; neuter gender, third person, singular number ; nominative case, subject of *is*.

¹ See *Manual*.

Charm is a noun, common ; neuter gender, third person, singular number ; nominative case, attribute complement of *is*.

Childhood is a noun, common ; neuter gender, third person, singular number ; objective case, object of the preposition *of*.

2. We visited Andrew Jackson's old home.

Andrew Jackson's is a noun, proper ; masculine gender, third person, singular number ; possessive case, possessor of *home*.

Home is a noun, common ; neuter gender, third person, singular number ; objective case, object of the verb *visited*.

3. Demosthenes, the orator, was a Grecian.

Orator is a noun, common ; masculine gender, third person, singular number ; nominative case, in apposition with *Demosthenes*.

Remarks. — 1. At first pupils should say "masculine gender, third person, singular number," etc., but after they are familiar with the order they may say "masculine, third, singular," etc.

2. *Orator* is really common gender, but since it refers to *Demosthenes* it is better to call it masculine in this sentence.

7. The following is a model for written parsing :

	CLASS	GENDER	PERSON	NUMBER	CASE	SYNTAX ¹
Innocence	common	neuter	third	sing.	nom.	subject of <i>is</i>
charm	common	neuter	third	sing.	nom.	at. complement
childhood	common	neuter	third	sing.	obj.	object of <i>of</i>
And. Jackson's	proper	mas.	third	sing.	poss.	possessor of <i>home</i>
home	common	neuter	third	sing.	obj.	object of <i>visited</i>
orator	common	mas.	third	sing.	nom.	apposition with <i>Demosthenes</i>

8. Parse the nouns in these sentences :

1. Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness.
2. Into the midst of the battle rode a fearless knight.
3. The Eskimos endure severe cold in winter.
4. Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru, was a Spaniard.
5. The West Indies are islands in the Atlantic Ocean.
6. We all expect Robert to succeed.

¹ Syntax means the office of the word in the sentence.

LESSON 38

NOUN CLAUSE AN APPOSITIVE: ANALYSIS,
DIAGRAMING

1. In addition to the uses of the noun clause already given, it may be used as an appositive; as,

1. The theory that the earth revolves around the sun was believed by Galileo.
2. It is evident that he made a mistake.
3. Do you believe the old proverb, "Honesty is the best policy"?

In the first sentence, the noun clause "that the earth revolves around the sun" is in the nominative case, in apposition with *theory*, the subject. It explains what theory was believed by Galileo.

In the second sentence, the subject of *is* is *it*, and the noun clause "that he made a mistake" is in the nominative case, in apposition with *it*.

In the third sentence the clause "Honesty is the best policy" is in the objective case, in apposition with *proverb*, the object.

2. Notice the analysis of this sentence:

The theory that the earth revolves around the sun was believed by Galileo.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which "The — sun" is the complete subject, and "was — Galileo" is the complete predicate. The independent clause is "The theory was believed by Galileo," of which *the theory* is the complete subject, *theory* is the simple subject modified by *the*, an adjective, and also by "that — sun," a dependent noun clause in apposition with *theory*. Of the dependent clause *that* is the introductory word, *the earth* is the complete subject, *earth* is the simple subject, modified by *the*, an adjective, "revolves — sun" is the complete predicate, *revolves* is the simple predicate, modified by "around the sun," a prepositional adverb phrase. Of the independent clause, "was — Galileo" is the complete predicate, *was believed* is the simple predicate, modified by *by Galileo*, a prepositional adverb phrase.

Although the entire sentence is the independent clause when the noun clause is the subject, object, or attribute complement, this is not the case when the noun clause is an appositive, because the independent clause has a subject, object, or attribute complement without reading the noun clause.

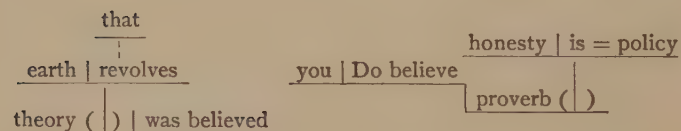
3. Analyze sentences 2 and 3 in paragraph 1.

4. Analyze these sentences :

1. The doctrine that all men are created equal was held by our fathers.
2. It cannot be imagined how far constancy will carry us.

5. Notice these diagrams :

1. The theory that the earth revolves around the sun was believed by Galileo.
2. Do you believe the old proverb, "Honesty is the best policy"?



6. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 4.

7. Diagram these sentences :

1. That boy does not heed the command, "Honor thy parents."
2. The order was given in these words : "Throw up your hands."
3. The proverb, "All's well that ends well," is very old.
4. The motto is this : "Haste makes waste."

8. Write a sentence having a noun clause—

1. In apposition with the subject.
2. In apposition with the object.
3. In apposition with the attribute complement.
4. In apposition with the object of a preposition.

LESSON 39

SENTENCES TO BE CHANGED IN FORM

1. Rewrite these sentences, using different nouns instead of those given, but making the sentences mean the same :

1. The students need careful instruction.
2. Liberty is better than slavery.
3. The waves dashed the vessel against the pier.
4. The narrative told by the clergyman was interesting.
5. I took a stroll through the woods.
6. Good habits give pleasure to the possessor.

2. Express in as many ways as you can the meaning of each sentence :

1. New York is the most populous city in the United States. No other city in the United States has so many people as New York. The population of New York is greater than that of any other city in the United States, etc.
2. Iron is the most useful metal.
3. Jupiter is the largest planet of the solar system.
4. The wisest men sometimes make mistakes.
5. Oliver Cromwell died more than one hundred years before the American Revolution began. (Begin one sentence with *it*.)
6. To steal is wrong.

LESSON 40

PRONOUNS : PERSONAL, COMPOUND PERSONAL

1. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.
2. The Antecedent of a pronoun is the word for which it stands.

In "The man who has no music in his soul is deprived of many pleasures," *man* is the antecedent of *who*.

The word *antecedent* means going before, and the antecedent usually precedes the pronoun.

3. Pronouns are divided into Personal Pronouns, Relative Pronouns, Interrogative Pronouns, and Adjective Pronouns.

4. A Personal Pronoun is a pronoun that indicates its person by its form.

I, when a pronoun, is always in the first person, *you* is always in the second person, and *he*, *she*, and *it* are always in the third person.

Notice that the definition is not "A Personal Pronoun is a pronoun that stands for persons."

5. Learn the —

DECLENSION OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Singular	NOM.:	I	thou	you	he	she	it
	POS.:	my, mine ¹	thy, thine	your, yours	his	her, hers	its
	OBJ.:	me	thee	you	him	her	it
Plural	NOM.:	we	ye	you	they		
	POS.:	our, ours	your, yours	your, yours	their, theirs		
	OBJ.:	us	you	you	them		

6. A Compound Personal Pronoun is formed by adding to some forms of the personal pronouns *self* for the singular, and *selves* for the plural.

7. Study the —

DECLENSION OF THE COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Sing.	NOM.:	myself	yourself (thyself)	himself, herself, itself
	OBJ.:	myself	yourself (thyself)	himself, herself, itself

¹ Most authors consider *mine*, *thine*, *yours*, *ours*, *hers*, and *theirs* in the possessive case. For another view, see Grade Eight.

Plu.	NOM. :	ourselves	yourselves	themselves
	OBJ. :			

Notice that the nominative and the objective are the same, and that there is no possessive.

8. The compound personal pronouns are nearly always appositives; as,

1. We ourselves are to blame.
2. Mr. Richards attended to the matter himself.

Ourselves is in apposition with *we*, and *himself* is in apposition with *Mr. Richards*.

Sometimes a compound personal pronoun is used as the object when it means the same person or thing as the subject; as, "They disgraced themselves by such conduct."

9. Do not use the nominative forms of the personal pronouns for the objective case, nor the objective forms for the nominative case.

10. From each parenthesis select the proper word, and give the reason for your choice :

1. Father gave (to) my sister and (I, me) a present.
2. The teacher invited George and (I, me) to his house.
3. The traveler told Lizzie and (he, him) a story.
4. Mother wants (me, I) to study grammar.
5. Mother wants my brother and (I, me) to study grammar.
6. (He, him) shall be appointed.
7. (He, him) shall I appoint.
8. Harry was sent home instead of (I, me). (*Instead of* is taken together as one preposition.)
9. The teacher thought it was (we, us) talking.
10. (We, us) boys are organizing a ball club.
11. He gave money to (us, we) girls.
12. Mother, let Mary and (I, me) go to the park to see the ball game.

LESSON 41

PRONOUNS: RELATIVE

1. You have already learned that *who*, *which*, and *that* are sometimes used to connect a dependent clause to some word in the independent clause. When so used, these words are called Relative Pronouns.

2. A Relative Pronoun is a pronoun that relates to some preceding word or words, and connects clauses.

A relative clause always modifies the antecedent of the relative; therefore, a relative pronoun is always found in a dependent, adjective clause of a complex sentence.

3. The principal relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*.

These pronouns are not always relatives; they are relatives only when used as connectives.

4. *Who* and *which* are declined as follows:

NOMINATIVE:	who	which
POSSESSIVE:	whose	whose
OBJECTIVE:	whom	which

The singular and the plural are the same.

5. *That* and *what* are not declined.

6. Use each of these relatives in a sentence:

who	whose	whom	which
-----	-------	------	-------

7. Of the relative pronouns, *who* (*whose*, *whom*) refers to persons, *which* refers to animals and things, and *that* refers to persons, animals, and things.

The only difficulty in the choice of a relative is in deciding when to use *that*.

8. *That* is better than *who* or *which* —

1. When the antecedent includes both persons and things ;
as, "The men and dogs that I saw."
2. After the words *all*, *very*, and *same*.
3. After an adjective in the superlative degree.

9. Give reasons for using *that* in these sentences :

1. The men and the cattle that were on the train were killed in the wreck.
2. He was the best actor that I ever saw.
3. This is the same book that my father used.
4. You are the very one that I want to see.
5. Not all that glitters is gold.
6. The wisest man that lives makes some mistakes.

10. Fill these blanks with *who* (or *whom*), *which*, or *that* :

1. I watched the boy and monkey — were entertaining the crowd in the street.
2. Solomon is called the wisest man — ever lived.
3. He was deceived by the friend in — he trusted.
4. These are the same men — were here yesterday.
5. All — he heard did not change his opinion.
6. Do you know that man — is on the other side of the street?

Since the adjective *that* is just before *man*, it will not sound well to fill this blank with the relative *that*.

7. These Germans still remember the friends and the homes — they left in Europe.

11. Use the relative *that* in two sentences of your own.

LESSON 42

RELATIVE PRONOUNS — Continued

1. Rewrite these sentences, placing the relative clauses in the proper place :

1. The flowers are those in the eastern part of the park (that bloom first).
 2. The Greeks were very fond of all sports (that could make the body strong).
 3. The apples came from New York (that we had for breakfast).
 4. A bird avoids the snare (that is cautious).
 5. That city is noted for its factories (which is very large).
2. Change each adjective to a relative clause :
1. I have an aged parent. (A parent that is aged.)
 2. A talented pupil learns easily.
 3. A lame horse is useless.
 4. The new bicycle is mine.
 5. An angry man should govern himself.
 6. Thou hast uttered cruel words.
 7. Quarrelsome persons are disagreeable.
3. Each of these numbered sentences contains two simple sentences. Connect them by a relative pronoun.
1. My uncle gave me a pony. The pony is in the barn.
 2. The book is interesting. I bought the book.
 3. Ellen mended her apron. The apron had been torn.
 4. The girl writes well. You met the girl.
 5. The gentleman is charitable. You have met his wife.
4. Complete the following :
1. My oldest brother whom ——
 2. Can you tell me whom ——?
 3. Can you tell me who ——?
 4. I believe it was he whom ——

LESSON 43

RELATIVE PRONOUNS — Continued

1. The relative pronoun is frequently understood.
 1. This is the marble you lost.The understood relative is the object of *lost*.
2. It was she I sought.

2. Supply the understood relative, and give its case.

1. Men will reap the things they sow.
2. The orator we heard is from Kentucky.
3. That is the picture you looked at.
4. This is the letter I expected.
5. Do you remember the name of the town he lives in?

3. Diagram the sentences of paragraph 2.

4. Write a sentence having a relative pronoun —

1. After an adjective of the superlative degree.
2. After the word *all*.
3. The object of a verb.
4. Referring to persons and animals both.
5. Understood.
6. The object of a preposition.
7. In the possessive.

5. Use in one sentence :

1. He, who.
2. He, whom.
3. I, which.
4. I, that.

LESSON 44

PRONOUNS: INTERROGATIVE, ADJECTIVE

1. An Interrogative Pronoun is a pronoun used in asking a question; as, "Who are they?" "Which is right?" "What did he say?"

The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

Which and *what* are not always interrogative pronouns when used in asking questions. They may be interrogative adjectives, as in "Which team won the game?" "What books have you?"

The antecedent of an interrogative pronoun is usually found in the answer to the question.

2. The interrogatives *who* and *which* are declined in the same manner as the relatives *who* and *which*.

3. Use two different interrogative pronouns in sentences.

4. Some adjectives are frequently used without a noun; as, "Some (persons) said one thing, and some (persons) said another (thing)."

If we omit the words in parenthesis, *some* and *another* take their place, or perform their office in the sentence.

5. An Adjective Pronoun is a pronoun that performs the offices of an adjective and a noun.

The most common adjective pronouns are the following: this, that, these, those, both, the former, the latter, all, any, each, either, neither, few, many, none, one, other, another, some, several, such.

6. Use each of these words in two sentences: first, as an adjective; second, as an adjective pronoun:

that	both	many	each
------	------	------	------

7. Pronouns have the same properties as nouns.

8. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, person, and number, but its case depends on its office in the sentence.

LESSON 45

PRONOUNS: PARSING

1. The following is the order for parsing pronouns: class; gender, person, number (to agree with its antecedent); case, syntax.

EXAMPLES

1. Mabel rests because she is tired.

She is a pronoun, personal; feminine, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent *Mabel*; nominative, subject of the verb *is*.

2. I have his marble.

I is a pronoun, personal; common gender, first, singular, to agree with its antecedent, the speaker; nominative, subject of the verb *have*. (If the speaker is known, *I* may be parsed as masculine or feminine, to agree with its antecedent.)

His is a pronoun, personal; masculine, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent, the person spoken of; possessive, possessor of *marble*.

3. You should not act thus.

You is a pronoun, personal; common, second, plural,¹ to agree with its antecedent, the person or persons addressed; nominative, subject of the verb *should act*.

4. Who is at the door?

Who is a pronoun, interrogative; common, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent, the person spoken of; nominative, subject of the verb *is*.

5. The owner will drive the team himself.

Himself is a pronoun, compound personal; masculine, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent *owner*; nominative, in apposition with *owner*.

6. Few shall part where many meet.

Few is a pronoun, adjective; common, third, plural, to agree with its antecedent, *persons* understood; nominative, subject of the verb *will part*.

7. None knew the sorrow that she felt.

That is a pronoun, relative; neuter, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent *sorrow*; objective, object of the verb *felt*.

2. The following is a model for written parsing :

	CLASS	GENDER	PERSON	NUMBER	ANTECEDENT	CASE	SYNTAX
that	relative	neuter	third	sing.	sorrow	objective	object of <i>felt</i>
she	personal	fem.	third	sing.	{ person spoken of	nom.	subject of <i>felt</i>

¹ Since *you* always requires a plural verb, it should always be parsed as plural.

3. Parse the pronouns in these sentences :

1. Who built the first steamboat?
2. We respect those who respect themselves.
3. He is a man whom we respect.
4. Either the major or the captain will lead his soldiers.
5. The major and the captain will lead their soldiers.
6. Each star has its place.

LESSON 46

PARSING — Continued

1. Parse the nouns and the pronouns in these sentences :

1. Our deeds are fetters which we forge ourselves.
2. He that feeds men serveth few ;
He serves all that dares to be true.
3. This passing moment is an edifice which the Creator cannot rebuild.
4. It was a dreary road.
5. What is the meaning of the word *interrogative*?
6. He is a poor workman that quarrels with his tools.
7. Trust that man in nothing who has not a conscience in everything.

LESSON 47

DIAGRAMING

Diagram the sentences in lesson 46, and analyze those having odd numbers.

LESSON 48

PRONOUNS — CORRECT FORMS

1. Since some pronouns have an objective form different from that of the nominative, mistakes are

sometimes made in their use; that is, the nominative is sometimes used instead of the objective, and the objective is sometimes used instead of the nominative.

2. The following sentences are all correct. Give the reason for the case of each pronoun.

1. It is I. 2. It wasn't she. 3. It is she and we.
4. It might have been they. 5. Whom did he see?
6. Whom did he lend my knife to?
7. Who will go? He (will go).
8. Whom did he meet? Him. (He met him.)
9. Whom did he tell? Her or him?
10. This is between you and me.
11. I thought it was he.

(The object of *thought* is the noun clause "It was he.")

12. Do you know whom he called?

(The object of *knew* is the clause "whom he called.")

13. Do you know who went?
14. He wants you and me to go.

(*You* and *me* are not the objects of *want*.)

15. I saw him whom you spoke to.
16. Teacher, let Mary and me sit together.
17. He laughed at us boys.
18. John is taller than I (am).
19. They sent him and me to school.
20. My brother came for my cousin and me.

LESSON 49

CORRECT FORMS OF PRONOUNS

Select the proper word in each parenthesis, and give the reason for your choice :

1. It was intended for either you or (he, him).
2. There are few better men than (he, him).
3. He saw Mary and (I, me).

4. The dog ran between you and (I, me).
5. It was given to mother and (she, her).
6. Did you see him and (I, me) at the concert?
7. They asked for (she, her) and (us, we).
8. I understand it was (they, them) that called.
9. They asked Clarence and (I, me).
10. The book was given to Robert and (she, her).
11. It is (I, he, she) who am reciting.
12. It is (she, he, you, they) who are reciting.
13. You knew more about it than (he, him).
14. (They, them) that talk must remain after school.
15. (They, them) that talk I shall keep after school.
16. They invited (he, him), not (I, me).
17. These pearls are for sister and (I, me).
18. You and (I, me) they look upon with great suspicion.
19. (He, him) that cometh unto me I will in no wise cast out.
20. When you saw John and (I, me) we were walking.

LESSON 50

CORRECT FORMS OF PRONOUNS — Continued

Select the proper word in each parenthesis, and give the reason for your choice:

1. That is good doctrine for (us, we) Americans.
2. (Who, whom) does this farm belong to?
3. Whom did she call? (We, us) girls.
4. If you were (he, him), would you go?
5. The boy (who, whom) I met is a fine fellow.
6. You can take care of that as well as (I, me).
7. Every one is invited except you and (she, her).
8. She is younger than (I, me).
9. The pupils of the eighth grade, as well as (we, us) are going.
10. This scenery is not new to (us, we) boys of the country.
11. The guide said that (we, us) boys were too careless.

12. This is a secret between you and (I, me).
13. Was it (he, him) (who, whom) you met?
14. He is the same man (who, that) met us on the bridge.
15. This is the longest lesson (that, which) we ever had.
16. The men and the tools (who, whom, which, that) you sent for have arrived.
17. Mother gave all the candy to (us, we) girls.
18. (Who, whom) can we believe, if not (he, him)?
19. No one but (he, him) should be about the king.
(When *but* means except, it is a preposition.)
20. Nobody was there but my friend and (he, him).

LESSON 51

PRONOUN: AGREEMENT WITH ANTECEDENT

1. In these sentences each pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, person, and number. Examine carefully.

1. Each boy must prepare his lesson.
2. Each girl must prepare her lesson.
3. Every pupil must prepare his lesson.

Here *pupil*, the antecedent, is common gender, but the pronoun *his* is masculine gender. Since there is no singular personal pronoun of the common gender in the third person, the masculine is generally used to refer to such antecedents.

4. All persons should do their duty.
5. Has everybody solved his problems?
6. Either John or Henry will give his assistance.
7. John and Henry will give their assistance.
8. Let every one answer for himself.
9. If any one calls while I am away, tell him to wait till I return.
10. Each bird seeks its nest.
11. Neither the chairman nor the secretary would give his consent.

2. Fill each of these blanks with the correct personal pronoun to agree with its antecedent :

1. Every person should try to improve —— mind.
2. I did not notice which one of the workmen finished —— work first.
3. Each pupil will take care of —— own room.
4. Neither the horse nor the dog has had —— breakfast.
5. No woman can be blamed for maintaining —— dignity.
6. He brought me the scissors, and I mended ——.
7. If any one wants it, let —— say so.
8. Mary and Lucy will favor us with —— company.
9. Mary or Lucy will favor us with —— company.
10. Neither Mary nor Lucy will favor us with —— company.
11. Each of our party carried a knapsack with ——.
12. This is such bad news that I cannot believe ——.
13. If you find "Longfellow's Poems," send —— to me.

LESSON 52

ADJECTIVES

1. An Adjective is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun.

2. Adjectives are divided into Descriptive Adjectives and Definitive Adjectives.

3. A Descriptive Adjective is an adjective that describes a noun or pronoun by expressing some quality belonging to it; as, *beautiful* flowers, *golden* sunset.

4. A Definitive Adjective is an adjective that does not express a quality; as, *those* flowers, *a* sunset.

5. Descriptive adjectives are divided into Proper and Common.

6. A Proper Adjective is an adjective derived from a proper noun ; as, *American* history.

A proper adjective should begin with a capital letter.

7. A Common Adjective is a descriptive adjective not derived from a proper noun.

8. Definitive adjectives are divided into Articles, Demonstratives, Distributives, Indefinites, Interrogatives, and Numerals.

Of the above classes, only articles and numerals will be discussed in this Grade.

9. The Articles are the definitives *a* or *an*, and *the*. *A* or *an* is the Indefinite Article, and *the* is the Definite Article.

A and *an* are the same article, and have the same meaning. *A* is used before words beginning with a consonant sound, and *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound ; as, a horse, a union, an orange, an honest man. Notice that the word *union* begins with the consonant sound of *y*, although its first letter is a vowel. The word *honest* begins with a vowel sound because *h*, its first letter, is silent.

In such expressions as "an honest man," *an* modifies *man*, not *honest*. Articles do not modify adjectives.

10. A Numeral Adjective is a definitive that expresses number definitely ; as, *five* men, the *fifth* problem.

Adjectives that express number indefinitely are not numeral adjectives. *Several*, *many*, etc., are not numerals.

11. Numeral adjectives are divided into Cardinals, Ordinals, and Multiplicatives.

12. A Cardinal is a numeral that denotes simply the number of objects ; as, *three*, *forty*.

13. An Ordinal is a numeral that denotes the position of an object in a series ; as, *third, fortieth*.

14. A Multiplicative is a numeral that denotes how many fold ; as, *threefold, triple, forty-fold*.

15. Place *a* or *an* before each of these words:

universal honorable useful humble

16. Write a sentence containing —

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. A proper adjective. | 4. An ordinal. |
| 2. The definite article. | 5. A multiplicative. |
| 3. A cardinal number. | 6. A common adjective. |

LESSON 53

ADJECTIVES : POSITION. — USE OF ARTICLE

1. An adjective may be placed before the word it modifies, it may be used in the predicate (attribute complement), or it may be used appositively ; as,

1. The building has a firm foundation.
2. The foundation is firm.
3. The foundation, firm and deep, will last a long time.

When the adjective precedes the noun it is said to be used *Attributively*.

An attributive adjective sometimes follows the noun ; as, "his soldiers true."

The diagram for an adjective used appositively is the same as for one used attributively.

2. Sometimes the use of the article gives a meaning quite different from that of the same sentence with the article omitted.

"This boy has a large and a Roman nose" means that he has two noses, one large and the other Roman. "This boy has a large

Roman nose" means that he has one nose. "The secretary and the treasurer" means two persons. "The secretary and treasurer" means one person with two offices. "A house and a lot" means two pieces of property; the house is not on the lot. "A house and lot" means that the house is on the lot.

3. Give the meaning of each of these sentences and phrases.

If you think some of them are incorrect, tell why you think so.

1. The black and the white horse are in the stable.
2. The black and white horse are in the stable.
3. A tall and a short man.
4. A tall and short man.
5. A red and yellow flag.
6. A red and a yellow flag.
7. A bright and dull boy went to school.
8. A bright and a dull boy went to school.
9. A great and good man.
10. A great and a good man.
11. The definite and the indefinite article.
12. The definite and indefinite article.

4. Whether the article should be used or omitted can usually be determined by a careful study of the meaning of the sentence.

We have good authority for saying "a boy and a girl" or "a boy and girl," but the former is to be preferred. But we should not say "an industrious boy and pretty girl" because *an* is not the proper form to precede *pretty*. We should say "an industrious boy and a pretty girl."

"He does not deserve the name of a gentleman" means he does not deserve the name (proper name) of some particular gentleman (Mr. Brown, for instance). "He does not deserve the name of gentleman" means he does not deserve to be called a gentleman — he is no gentleman.

5. Give the meaning of each of these sentences, and correct those you consider incorrect :

1. Cromwell received the title of a Protector.
2. What is the difference between the old and new method?
3. The chief magistrate is called President.
4. This book was read by the old and young.
5. He fully deserved the name of a traitor.
6. Flattery corrupts the receiver and the giver.
7. He was a lazy and a bad man.
8. The electric and steam cars connect the two towns.
9. The electric and the steam cars connect the two towns.

LESSON 54

ADJECTIVES: COMPARISON

1. Notice this sentence:

The pond is large, a sea is larger, but an ocean is the largest.

You will notice that while the pond, the sea, and the ocean all have the quality of size, or largeness, they have it in different degrees. Since these different degrees are used when two or more objects are compared, they are called Degrees of Comparison.

2. Comparison is a variation of descriptive adjectives to express the quality in different degrees.

3. There are three degrees of comparison: the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

4. The Positive Degree expresses the simple quality ; as, tall, wise.

5. The Comparative Degree expresses the quality in a higher or a lower degree ; as, taller, less wise.

6. The Superlative Degree expresses the quality in the highest or the lowest degree ; as, tallest, least wise.

7. In comparing an adjective we use this model: positive, *tall*; comparative, *taller*; superlative, *tallest*. Or, positive, *wise*; comparative, *less wise*; superlative, *least wise*.

In the preceding model *tall* is compared to denote an increase of the quality, but *wise* is compared to denote a decrease of the quality.

8. Using the model just given, compare these adjectives:

high	short	slow	new	old
------	-------	------	-----	-----

9. Adjectives of one syllable usually form the comparative by adding *er* to the positive, and the superlative by adding *est* to the positive. Adjectives of more than two syllables are compared by placing before the positive *more* for the comparative, and *most* for the superlative; as, positive, *important*; comparative, *more important*; superlative, *most important*.

10. Most adjectives of two syllables are compared by using *more* and *most*.

Adjectives of two syllables ending in *y*, silent *e*, or *ow* are generally compared by using *er* and *est*; as, witty, wittier, wittiest; gentle, gentler, gentlest; narrow, narrower, narrowest.

11. A suffix is one or more syllables placed after a word; as, *er* in *taller*.

12. A prefix is one or more syllables placed before a word; as, *dis* in *dishonest*.

13. Notice these words:

stingy, stingier, stingiest; fly, flies, flying; sly, slyer, slyest.

Notice that in *stingy*, *fly*, and *sly*, the *y* is preceded by a consonant, and that *y* is changed to *i* in some of the derived words.

14. Except in adjectives of one syllable, words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i* when a suffix is added not beginning with *i*.

15. Notice these words :

wise + er = wiser. hope + ing = hoping. move + ed = moved.

Notice that *e* is silent in *wise*, *hope*, and *move*, and that it is dropped when the suffix is added.

16. Words ending in silent *e* drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

17. Compare these adjectives :

early
noble

cloudy
humble

windy
shy

pretty
dreary

LESSON 55

COMPARISON — Continued

1. Notice these words :

thin, thinner, thinnest; cold, colder, coldest; clear, clearer, clearest; hop, hopping, hopped; stamp, stamping; prefer, preferred; travel, traveled.

Notice that *thin*, *cold*, *clear*, *hop*, and *stamp* are words of one syllable, that *prefer* is accented on the last syllable, and that *travel* is accented on the first syllable.

2. Words of one syllable, and words of more than one syllable accented on the last, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

c, h, k, q, v, w, x, and *y* are never doubled.

3. Compare these adjectives:

hot thick red glad broad snug

4. Add *ed* and *ing* to each of these words:

try	dine	marry	star
compel	decoy	refer	beg

5. Some very common adjectives are irregular in their comparison; as,

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
bad	worse	worst
evil		
ill		
good	better	best
well		
little	less	least
many	more	most
much		
near	nearer	{ nearest next

A few definitive adjectives are compared, as *many* and *much* above.

6. A few descriptive adjectives, from their meaning, cannot be compared; as,

perfect square round perpendicular

7. Compare these adjectives:

ancient	much	red	evil
vertical	this	yellow	perfect

8. Double comparatives and double superlatives should not be used.

“More unkind” is a double comparative, and “most wisest” is a double superlative.

LESSON 56

THE USE OF THE COMPARATIVE AND THE SUPERLATIVE

1. The Comparative is used in comparing two objects or two classes of objects; as, "Luther is older than Lucy." "These two houses are larger than those three."

2. The Superlative is used in comparing three or more things; as, "This house is the largest of the three." "New York is the largest city in America."

3. When the comparative is followed by *than*, the latter term of comparison must exclude the former.

In "Texas is larger than any other state in the Union," the former term of comparison is *Texas* and the latter term is "any other state in the Union." Notice that "any other state" does not include Texas. If *other* is omitted, the latter term will be "any state in the Union," which will include *Texas*, the former term. To say "Texas is larger than any state in the Union" is saying that Texas is larger than itself.

4. When the superlative is used, the latter term of comparison must include the former.

In "Texas is the largest state in the Union," the latter term, "state in the Union," will include *Texas*, the former term.

5. The following sentences are correct. Study them carefully.

1. My mother is the oldest of five sisters.
2. Washington and Lincoln are revered more than any other Americans.
3. No one ever had a more faithful friend.

4. No other one ever had so faithful a friend.
5. Give the book to the younger of the two girls.
6. Coal is more abundant in this state than any other mineral.
7. Of all the pictures in this room I prefer that one.
8. China has a greater population than any other country in the world.

6. Some of the following sentences are incorrect. Make the proper changes, and give your reasons for changing.

1. Iron is more useful than any metal.
2. Iron is the most useful of metals.
3. He is the strongest of all the boys in the school.
4. Of all the other boys in the school, he is the strongest.
5. That tree is taller than any tree in the forest.
6. That tree is taller than any other tree in the forest.

(The last two may both be correct. Explain the difference in meaning.)

7. The boy is the brightest of his classmates.
8. This lesson is the hardest lesson we ever had.
9. This lesson is the hardest we ever had before.
10. Take the two strongest men of the company.
11. Of all the other men in the shop, he was the most careful.
12. Platinum is heavier than any other metal.

LESSON 57

COMPARISON : REVIEW

I. Write sentences comparing the following things, using first the comparative form, then the superlative :

1. The Amazon, a large river ; other rivers in the world, smaller. The Amazon is larger than any other river in the world. The Amazon is the largest river in the world.

2. Rhode Island, a very small state ; other states of the Union, larger.
3. Henry, who is the oldest boy in school ; other boys in the school.
4. The population of London ; the population of other cities in the world.
5. The Falls of Niagara ; other falls in the United States.
6. This building, much admired ; other buildings in the city, less admired.
7. Queen Victoria's reign, long ; the reigns of other English rulers, not so long.
8. The Himalaya Mountains ; other mountains in the world.
9. The Pacific Ocean ; other bodies of water.

2. Use the comparative in two sentences, comparing objects of your own selection. Then express the same thought, using the superlative.

LESSON 58

ADJECTIVES : PARSING

1. The following is the order for parsing an adjective : class, degree, compare it, name the word it modifies.

EXAMPLES

The stars are brilliant.

The is an adjective, definitive ; it modifies *stars*. *Brilliant* is an adjective, descriptive ; positive ; compared — brilliant, more brilliant, most brilliant ; it modifies *stars*.

2. Parse the adjectives in these sentences :

1. A beautiful butterfly took the place of the ugly caterpillar.
2. A crew of seventy men was on the gallant ship and went with it to the bottom of the deep sea.
3. Empty vessels always make the loudest noise.
4. Which of the captains is the braver soldier?

3. Diagram the sentences of the preceding paragraph.

LESSON 59

ANALYSIS

1. Notice the analysis of this sentence :

New York is larger than Massachusetts.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which *New York* is the subject, "is larger than Massachusetts (is large)" is the complete predicate. "New York is larger" is the independent clause, of which *New York* is the subject, *is larger* is the complete predicate, *is* is the simple predicate, *larger*, an adjective modifying the subject, is the attribute complement, modified by "than Massachusetts is large," a dependent adverb clause of degree, of which *Massachusetts* is the subject, *is large* is the complete predicate, *is* is the simple predicate, *large*, an adjective modifying the subject, is the attribute complement, modified by *than*, a conjunctive adverb used as the connective.

When the comparative degree is followed by *than*, there will always be a complex sentence, and the positive degree of the same word (often not expressed) will be found in the dependent clause. In such sentences *than* is a conjunctive adverb, modifying the word in the positive degree and connecting the dependent clause to the word in the comparative degree.

2. Analyze these sentences :

1. Wisdom is better than rubies.
2. Skill is stronger than strength.
3. Actions speak louder than words.
4. The tongue wounds more than the lance (wounds many).
5. One to-day is better than ten to-morrows.
6. Kind words are little sunbeams that sparkle as they fall.
7. The brightest of all things, the sun, has its spots.

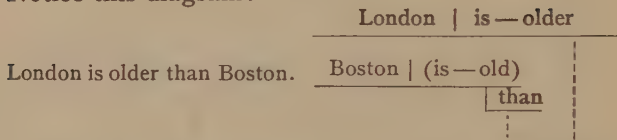
(The subject of *has* is *thing* understood after the word *brightest*. *Sun* is in apposition with *thing* understood.)

8. Lake George is noted for its beautiful scenery.
9. Gold is heavier than silver.

LESSON 60

DIAGRAMMING

1. Notice this diagram :



2. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 2, lesson 59.
 3. Diagram these sentences :

1. Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" is the finest allegory in the English language.
2. A true friend is one (gift) of the most precious gifts of heaven.
3. On the cross-beam, under the Old South Bell,
The nest of a pigeon is builded well.
4. Strongly built were the houses, with frames of oak and hemlock.
5. They never fail who die in a great cause.
6. The water is smooth where the brook is deep.

LESSON 61

**VERBS : REGULAR, IRREGULAR ; TRANSITIVE,
INTRANSITIVE**

1. A verb is a word that denotes action or being.

Usually there are many forms of the same verb. From *write* we have *wrote*, *written*, *writing*, *have written*, *shall write*, etc. *Wrote* is the past tense of *write* ; we say, "I wrote yesterday." *Written* (the form used with *have*) is the past participle of *write*.

From *walk* we have *walked*, *walking*, *have walked*, etc. Notice that *walked* is both the past tense and the past participle of *walk*, and that it ends in *ed*.

Notice the past tense and the past participle of these verbs :
 move, moved, have moved ; hop, hopped, have hopped. You will

notice that *move* drops *e* before adding *ed*, and that *hop* doubles the final consonant (*p*) before *ed* is added. This is in accordance with rules of spelling you learned while studying the comparison of adjectives.

2. A Regular Verb is a verb that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present, in accordance with the rules of spelling.

3. An Irregular Verb is a verb that does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present.

4. A Transitive Verb is a verb that requires an object to complete its meaning.

5. An Intransitive Verb is a verb that does not require an object to complete its meaning.

A verb may be intransitive in one sentence and transitive in another; as, "The bell rings." "He rings the bell."

6. Name the verbs in these sentences, and tell whether they are regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive:

1. A restless wind arose and blew the tree tops to and fro.
2. A bank of clouds lay in the west.
3. The oak sleeps in the acorn.
4. The condor of the Andes furls his broad wings at nightfall, and sinks down to rest upon the mountain crag.
5. The wind blew very hard.
6. The wind blew the roof from the house.
7. The great waves dashed themselves against the cliff.
8. We acquire the strength that we have overcome.
9. The sun, the great fountain of light, showered down his rays.
10. Not every misfortune which a man meets is a misfortune.
11. Like an unwritten page the new year lies before us.

LESSON 62

VOICE

1. The properties of the verb are Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number.

2. Examine these sentences :

1. The pupil studied the lesson.

2. The lesson was studied by the pupil.

In the first sentence the subject names the actor, but in the second sentence the subject names the thing that receives the act. This change of the form of the verb to indicate whether the subject denotes the actor or the receiver of the act is called Voice. When the subject denotes the actor (as in the first sentence), the verb is in the Active Voice. When the subject denotes the receiver of the action (as in the second sentence), the verb is in the Passive Voice.

3. Voice is that property of the verb which shows whether the subject denotes the actor or the receiver of the action.

4. The Active Voice is that form of the verb which shows that the subject denotes the actor.

5. The Passive Voice is that form of the transitive verb which shows that the subject denotes the receiver of the action.

If you will examine the two sentences given in paragraph 2, you will see that the object of the first sentence is the subject of the second. Now, as an intransitive verb has no object to become the subject, it follows that only transitive verbs have the passive voice. This is why the word *transitive* is used in the definition given in paragraph 5.

Intransitive verbs have only the active voice.

6. Name the voice of the verbs in these sentences :

✓ 1. The workmen are building a bridge.

✓ 2. The bridge was built last year.

- ✓3. The song of the nightingale was heard.
- ✓4. The rain fell in torrents.
5. The rain was expected.
- ✓6. The dewdrops sparkle like diamonds.
- ✓7. Galileo invented the telescope.
8. The letter was written with care.
9. These people have been oppressed by their rulers.
10. Little minds are tamed and subdued by misfortune,
but great minds rise above it.
- ✓11. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.
- ✓12. The bobolink's song has been called a ripple of bird
laughter.
13. An education is not acquired in a short time.
14. Rome was not built in a day.
15. To him who forgives much, much shall be forgiven.
16. Children celebrate the day when he was born.
17. The microscope reveals to us many wonderful and
beautiful creatures.
- ✓18. Rather long journeys were then very often made.
- ✓19. Gold is found in many places.
- ✓20. These men have been working here for several days.

LESSON 63

VOICE — Continued

Rewrite these sentences, changing the voice of each verb; thus, "The tornado destroyed a large barn."
"A large barn was destroyed by the tornado."

1. Children welcome the springtime.
2. The lightning shattered the oak.
3. The steam engine was invented by Watt.
4. One bad example destroys many good precepts.
5. The little porch was covered by thrifty vines.
6. We saw a brilliant meteor.
7. They may overtake the party.
8. The carpenter had built the house.
9. The traveler was astonished at the sight.

10. The heavens declare the glory of God.
11. Such examples incite young men to noble careers.
12. Never spur a willing horse.
13. Evil companions corrupt good morals.
14. April showers bring May flowers.
15. The news set all the bells ringing.
16. A genius makes his dreams come true.
17. Humanity can never forget its dreamers.
18. An honest man will reap the result of his labors.
19. Circumstances do not make the man ; they simply reveal him to us.
20. The motorman could have prevented the accident.

LESSON 64

VERBS TO BE CLASSIFIED

1. Pick out each verb in these sentences, and tell whether it is regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive, active or passive.

Model. — The letter was written by him.

Was written is a verb, irregular, transitive, passive.

Remember that a passive verb is always transitive.

1. The burglars were driven from the house by a policeman.
2. Many wise proverbs were written by Solomon.
3. The sun has been shining.
4. The track should have been repaired.
5. The Saxons came into England about the middle of the fifth century.
6. England was conquered by the Normans.
7. A man's mind may be likened to a garden which may be intelligently cultivated or sadly neglected.
8. Great men think strongly, attempt fearlessly, and accomplish masterfully.

2. Write a sentence having a verb —

1. Irregular, transitive.
2. In the active voice.
3. Irregular, intransitive.
4. In the passive voice.

LESSON 65

MODE

1. Study these sentences :

1. Horace is walking.
2. Horace can walk.
3. Horace, walk.

In the first sentence the statement is made that Horace walks. In the second sentence the statement is not that he walks, but that he can walk — is able to walk. In the third sentence he is requested to walk.

From the above we learn that verbs change their form or meaning to express action or being in different manners (or modes). This property of the verb is called Mode.

2. Mode is that form or use of the verb which shows the manner in which the action or being is expressed.

3. There are four modes : the Indicative, the Potential, the Imperative, and the Subjunctive.

4. The Indicative Mode is used to express a fact or an actual existence ; as,

1. The battle was fought in Canada.
2. Yorktown is in Virginia.

5. The Indicative Mode may be used in asking questions ; as,

1. Where was the battle fought ?
2. Is Yorktown in Virginia ?

6. The Potential Mode is used to express the power, necessity, liberty, or possibility of action or being ; as,¹

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. She can read. | 3. She may read. |
| 2. She must read. | 4. She might read. |

¹ See *Manual*.

7. The Potential Mode may be used in asking questions ; as, "Can she read?"

8. The sign of the potential mode is *may, can, must, might, could, would, or should*.

The potential mode is so called because the word potential means able, having power.

9. The Imperative Mode is used to express a command, request, or an entreaty ; as,

1. Charge for the guns.
2. Do not leave me alone.
3. Please be seated.

The subject of the imperative mode is nearly always *you* understood.

10. The Subjunctive Mode is used to express an uncertainty, a wish, or a supposition contrary to the fact ; as,

1. I wish my friend *were* here.
2. If he *were* rich, he would cheerfully pay this bill.

Since the subjunctive mode is difficult, it will not be taken up until the next Grade. No verbs in the subjunctive mode will be found in the exercises of this Grade.

11. Name the mode of each verb in these sentences :

1. He should have gone long ago.
2. Bring me some flowers.
3. Idleness often leads to vice.
4. The candidate was defeated.
5. The dark clouds came up very suddenly.
6. Tell was a skillful archer of Switzerland.
7. The train might be wrecked.
8. Live for something.
9. The topaz is a beautiful gem.

LESSON 66

MODE — Continued

1. Name the mode of each verb in these sentences :

1. Written words cannot be recalled.
2. Sorrow for a fault should always go before forgiveness.
3. The sun could not shine, for clouds covered the sky.
4. All hail, Macbeth, that shall be king hereafter !
5. The prize cannot be obtained without labor.
6. I should have gone if I had known that I was needed.
7. If we would seem true, we must be true.
8. Cut your coat according to your cloth.
9. The city could not be captured.

2. Name the mode of each of these verbs :

goes, has gone, had gone, can go, must go, may go, may have gone, could go, could have gone, might have gone ; must be done, shall be done, had been done, might be done, has been done, did.

LESSON 67

TENSE

1. Tense is that form or use of the verb which shows the time of an action or being.

2. The Present Tense denotes present time ; as, I write, I am writing, I do write.

3. The Past Tense denotes past time ; as, I wrote, I was writing, I did write.

4. The Future Tense denotes future time ; as, I shall write, I shall be writing, I will write.

5. Name the tense of each of these verbs :

I walk, I do walk, I am walking, I walked, I did walk, I was walking, I shall walk, I will walk ; he rides, he rode, he is riding, he will ride, he was riding.

Every portion of time is present, past, or future, but grammarians make three other tenses, and in naming these three tenses they use the word *perfect*. This word, as used in grammar, means finished, or completed.

Each of the three tenses we have just studied has a perfect tense — a finished tense; that is, an act may have been finished at some past time, it may be finished just now, or it may be finished at some future time.

In this sentence, "I have written the letter," the writing of the letter is finished now — at present. This is called the Present-Perfect Tense.

In this sentence, "I had written the letter when you saw me," the writing of the letter was finished when you saw me — past time. This is called the Past-Perfect Tense.

In this sentence, "I shall have written the letter before to-morrow evening," the writing of the letter is not finished yet, but it will be finished before to-morrow evening — future time. This is called the Future-Perfect Tense.

6. The Present-Perfect Tense expresses action or being as completed at the present time.

The sign of the present-perfect tense in the indicative mode is *have* or *has*.

7. The Past-Perfect Tense expresses action or being as completed at some past time.

The sign of the past-perfect tense in the indicative mode is *had*.

8. The Future-Perfect Tense expresses action or being as completed at some future time.

The sign of this tense is *shall have* or *will have*.

9. We now see that there are six tenses: present, present-perfect; past, past-perfect; future, future-perfect.

10. Name the tense of each verb in these sentences :

1. It will rain to-night.
2. It was raining yesterday.
3. It had rained very hard before we met.
4. The girl has broken the pitcher.
5. The pitcher has been broken.
6. The girl broke the pitcher.
7. The pitcher was broken.
8. The house will have been finished by the Fourth of July.
9. The members of the ball team have been working very hard.

LESSON 68

TENSE — Continued

1. All of the following verbs are in the indicative mode. Name the tense of each one :

walks, has walked, walked, had walked, shall walk, shall have walked ; is torn, shall be torn, shall have been torn, have been torn, has been torn, had been torn ; sees, shall have seen, has seen, had seen.

The indicative is the only mode that has the six tenses.

Since a command or entreaty can be made only in the present, the imperative mode has only the present tense.

The potential mode has only the present, present-perfect, past, and past-perfect. The tense signs of the potential are :

PRESENT : may, can, must.

PRESENT-PERFECT : may have, can have, must have.

PAST : might, could, would, should.

PAST-PERFECT : might have, could have, would have, should have.

In the potential mode the name of the tense does not always indicate the time ; sometimes the form of the verb gives the name to the tense. Thus, *could go* is called past tense, but the time is either present or future.

2. All of these verbs are in the potential mode. Name the tense of each one.

may walk, can walk, must walk, may have walked, must have walked, might walk, could walk, would walk, should walk, might have walked, would have walked, should have walked; might be struck, may strike, should have struck, should have been struck; can see, could be seen, could see, must see, must have seen, would see.

LESSON 69

VOICE, MODE, TENSE: REVIEW

1. Name the mode and tense of each of these verbs :
steals, has stolen, stole, may steal, would have stolen; is studied, had been studied, shall have been studied, may have been studied, might be studied, shall be studied, study your lesson.

2. Name the voice, mode, and tense of the verbs in these sentences :

1. Large quantities of cotton are exported from this country.
2. The poems of Homer are interesting and instructive.
3. The days and nights swing equally upon the golden balance of time.
4. The long day's work is done;
The time for rest has come.
5. Can you tell why the tides rise and fall?

3. Write a sentence having the verb in the —

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Indicative, present-perfect. | 4. Indicative, past. |
| 2. Indicative, past-perfect. | 5. Indicative, future-perfect. |
| 3. Potential, present-perfect. | 6. Potential, past. |

LESSON 70

VERBS: PERSON, NUMBER. — PARSING

1. A verb may change its form according to the person of its subject; as, I see, he sees; or accord-

ing to the number of its subject ; as, he walks, they walk.

Since verbs generally change their form according to the person and number of the subject, they are said to have the same person and number as the subject.

2. A Finite verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

A finite verb is any mode or tense except the infinitive or participle.

3. The following is the order for parsing a verb : class according to form (regular or irregular) ; class according to meaning (transitive or intransitive) ; voice, mode, tense ; person and number to agree with its subject.

EXAMPLES

1. Fulton invented the steamboat.

Invented is a verb ; regular, transitive ; active voice, indicative mode, past tense ; third person, singular number, to agree with its subject, *Fulton*.

2. The matter had been well considered.

Had been considered is a verb ; regular, transitive ; passive voice, indicative mode, past-perfect tense ; third person, singular number, to agree with its subject, *matter*.¹

4. The following is a model for written parsing :

	CLASS AS TO FORM	CLASS AS TO MEANING	VOICE	MODE	TENSE	PERSON	NUMBER	SUBJECT
invented	regular	transitive	active	indic.	past	third	sing.	Fulton
had been considered	regular	transitive	pass.	indic.	past- perfect	third	sing.	matter

¹ After pupils are familiar with the order of parsing, the form may be shortened ; thus, " had been considered " is a verb ; regular, transitive ; passive, indicative, past-perfect ; third, singular, to agree with its subject, *matter*.

5. Parse the verbs in these sentences :

1. The thief had been caught before the trial.
2. Webster's orations are much admired.
3. The wounded deer could not run fast.
4. They may have been invited.
5. You shall be well paid for your efforts.
6. Each exercise must be well written.
7. They must have been surprised by their enemies.
8. By next Thursday, the ship will probably have reached its destination.
9. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!

LESSON 71

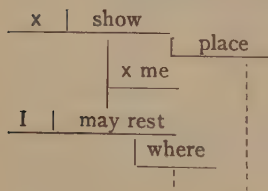
DIAGRAMMING AND PARSING

1. Diagram these sentences :

1. Be not forward in the presence of others.
2. Art is long, and time is fleeting.
3. Whence come these rude sounds?
4. They that forsake the law praise the wicked.

Wicked may be parsed as an adjective modifying *persons* understood, or it may be parsed as a noun.

5. Blessed is the man that endureth temptation.
6. Show me a place where I may rest.



Me is the object of *to* understood.

7. Do not be discouraged by failure.
8. Peter the Hermit preached the First Crusade.
9. Slow are the steps of freedom, but her feet turn never backward.

2. Parse the verbs in sentences 3, 5, 6, and 7.

LESSON 72

VERBS : AGREEMENT WITH SUBJECT

1. The following observations will aid us in applying the general rule, "A finite verb must agree with its subject in person and number":

1. A collective noun requires a plural verb when the individuals are thought of, but a singular verb when the collection is considered as a unit; as, "The jury were determined to agree." "The jury was discharged."
2. Two or more subjects connected by *and* require a plural verb; as, "Time and tide wait for no man."
3. Two or more singular subjects taken separately (usually connected by *or*, *nor*, *as well as*, etc.) require a singular verb; as, "Gold, silver, or platinum is more valuable than iron."
4. Two or more singular subjects preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no* require a singular verb even when connected by *and*; as, "Every man, woman, and child was saved."
5. When one subject is affirmative and the other negative, the verb agrees with the affirmative subject; as, "Men, not money, are needed." "Money, not men, is needed."

In such sentences the affirmative subject is the real subject.

2. The verbs in these sentences are correct. Give reasons for forms used.

1. Talking and doing are not the same.
2. Every train and steamboat was crowded.
3. From what country is each of your parents?
4. Every one of the witnesses says so.
5. The victuals are cold.
6. The word *victuals* is plural.
7. There are no tidings.

8. Neither wife nor child was there to meet him.
9. Books, and not pleasure, are his delight.
10. To profess and to possess are not the same.
11. "Very true," say they.
12. "Hurrah for the flag !" say I.
13. Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" is an old poem.
14. A variety of pleasing objects charms the eye.
15. The condition of the roads is very bad.
16. Hence arise the following conclusions.
17. The audience are still in their seats.
18. The audience was very large.

LESSON 73

VERBS: SENTENCES FOR CORRECTION

Each of the following sentences is incorrect. Make the corrections and give your reasons.

1. What studies have each of the boys?
2. Every one of the boys are in their place.

See that each pronoun agrees with its antecedent. The antecedent of *their* is not *boys*.

3. One of us are wrong.
4. Six days' work have been done.
5. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons.
6. The people, not the government, is responsible.
7. The number of our days are with Thee.
8. "Books" are a common noun.
9. Between grammar and logic there exists many connections.
10. The youth of this country has many opportunities.
11. My brother, with two friends, have arrived.
12. My brother and two friends has arrived.
13. Strong arguments, not a loud voice, brings conviction.
14. In him were found neither deceit nor any other vice.
15. Within the open door stands two prisoners.
16. The sun, with all its planets, are but a small part of the universe.

LESSON 74

VERBS: CORRECT FORMS

Select the proper word in each parenthesis, and give the reason for your choice :

1. Each of these studies (have, has) (its, their) own difficulties.
2. The report of the mayor and clerk (was, were) presented.
3. The report of the mayor and of the clerk (was, were) presented.
4. Not her beauty, but her talents (attract, attracts) attention.
5. Her talents, not her beauty, (attract, attracts) attention.
6. Her beauty, not her talents, (attract, attracts) attention.
7. Each day and each hour (bring, brings) (its, their) portion of duty.
8. The entire company (is, are) here.
9. That fine span of horses (belong, belongs) to my uncle.
10. Here (is, are) two apples.
11. There (was, were) giants in those days.
12. Neither of the speakers (is, are) here.
13. Each of the pupils (like, likes) to get prizes.
14. A succession of failures (has, have) discouraged them.
15. Every hill and valley (is, are) covered with grass.
16. The perfume of the flowers (fill, fills) the house.
17. Yonder (go, goes) my brother and sister.
18. The crime, not the scaffold, (is, are) the shame.
19. A bushel of pears (was, were) taken from that tree.
20. There (has, have) been several vessels lost on these rocks.
21. The regiment (consists, consist) of ten companies.
22. The regiment waved (its, their) hats.
23. (This, these) kind of beads (is, are) greatly prized by the Indians.
24. (Has, have) either of these aviators been in an accident?

LESSON 75

THE INFINITIVE

1. The Infinitive is that form of the verb which expresses action or being without affirming it; as, *to write*, *to have written*; *to be*.

2. The following are the infinitives of the verb *see*:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Present-Perfect</i>
ACTIVE: to see	to have seen
PASSIVE: to be seen	to have been seen

An intransitive verb does not have the passive infinitives.

The names *present* and *present-perfect* do not have reference to the time expressed by the infinitive, but to its form. The time depends on the finite verb of the sentence.

3. Write the four infinitives of —

study choose do

4. Write the two infinitives of —

go grow walk

5. The sign of the infinitive is *to*, but this sign is usually omitted after the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *help*, *let*, *make*, *see*, and some others; as, "Hear the engine (to) whistle."

6. Every infinitive is first of all a verb. As a verb, it is regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive, active or passive, and may be modified by an adverb. It also has the names *present* and *present-perfect*, but these are usually called forms, not tenses.

7. In addition to its verbal meaning, an infinitive is used as (has the construction of) a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

8. Notice these sentences :

1. To err is human.
2. Water to drink was scarce.
3. They came to hear the concert.

In the first sentence, *to err* is the subject of *is*; therefore, it has the construction of a noun in the nominative case.

In the second sentence, *to drink* modifies *water*, telling what kind of water (drinking water); therefore, it has the construction of an adjective.

In the third sentence, *to hear* modifies *came*, telling why they came; therefore, it has the construction of an adverb.

9. In these sentences the infinitive has the construction of a noun :

1. As subject: *To obey* is not always pleasant.
2. As attribute complement: His aim is *to please*.
3. As object of a verb: We desire *to succeed*.
4. In apposition: It is wrong *to steal*.

10. In these sentences the infinitive has the construction of an adjective :

1. Not in the predicate: Flee from the wrath *to come*.
2. In the predicate (attribute complement): The farm is *to be sold*. (What kind of farm? A to-be-sold farm, not a to-be-kept farm.)

11. In these sentences the infinitive has the construction of an adverb :

1. Modifying a verb: They came *to hear*.
2. Modifying an adjective: The train is ready *to start*.

12. Select the infinitives in these sentences, and give the construction of each :

1. It is easy to find fault.
2. To see is to believe.
3. They fought to defend their country.
4. The industrious boy is anxious to work.

LESSON 76

THE INFINITIVE — Continued

Point out the infinitives in these sentences, and give the construction of each :

1. Be swift to hear, but slow to speak.
2. The house is to be sold.
3. Music was ordained to refresh the mind.
4. To favor the bad is to injure the good.
5. To forget a wrong is the best revenge.
6. To be faultless is to be lifeless.
7. Dare to do your duty.
8. It is useless to inquire.
9. The cuckoo tried to steal the nest.
10. The student has a license to preach.
11. I come not here to talk.
12. To waste in youth is to want in age.
13. He that climbs too high is sure to fall.
14. The nest of the weasel is hard to find.
15. It will give me pleasure to get it for you.

LESSON 77

THE INFINITIVE — Continued

1. Give the construction of each of these infinitives :
 1. This is a good place to eat our luncheon.
 2. An earthen vessel is easy to break and hard to mend.
 3. It is not all of life to live.
 4. I learned to love the solitude with all my heart.
 5. The highest culture is to speak no ill.
 6. It then becomes necessary to enlarge the pictures.
2. Find the infinitives in these sentences :
 1. I will help you get ready.
 2. Do you hear the birds sing ?
 3. If I had the money, I would let him have it.
 4. See the dogs run.
 5. Let me go, too.

3. Write a sentence having an infinitive —

1. Present, passive.
2. Present-perfect, passive.
3. Present-perfect, active.
4. Without *to*.
5. With the construction of a noun, objective.
6. With the construction of a noun, nominative.
7. With the construction of an adjective.
8. With the construction of an adverb.

LESSON 78

ANALYSIS

1. Notice the analysis of this sentence :

The cuckoo tried to steal the nest.

This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which *the cuckoo* is the complete subject; *cuckoo* is the simple subject, modified by *the*, an adjective. "Tried — nest" is the complete predicate; *tried* is the simple predicate; *to steal*, an infinitive with the construction of a noun, is the object; *nest* is the object of *to steal*, modified by *the*, an adjective.

2. Analyze these sentences :

1. He was anxious to go.
2. He has permission to go.
3. To aid your fellow man is to serve God.

3. Analyze the sentences in paragraph 1, lesson 77.

LESSON 79

DIAGRAMING

1. Notice these diagrams :

1. To write is a pleasure.
2. To write letters is a pleasure.
3. I like to sing songs.

4. It is wrong to steal.
5. His intention is to go by water.
6. Flee from the wrath to come.
7. I came to hear you.

1. (To write | is = pleasure
2. (To write letters
| is = pleasure
3. I | like
| to sing
| songs
4. (to steal
It (|) | is — wrong
5. intention | is =
| to go
| by water
6. x | flee
| from wrath
| to come
7. I | came
| to hear
| you

In the first and the third the infinitive might be placed above the base line, as in the second, but it is not necessary. In the second it is necessary to place the infinitive on a support in order to show that *letters* is the object. In the fifth, if we placed the infinitive as in the third, it would look very much like the object of *is*.

Place the infinitive on a support only when necessary.

2. Diagram the sentences in lesson 76, having even numbers.

3. Diagram these sentences :

1. These men were sent to rule a distant province.
2. To rob a caravan is a crime, but to steal a continent is glory.
3. The messenger received orders to return immediately.
4. It is useless to argue with the master of many legions.
5. It is well to think well ; it is divine to act well.

LESSON 80

THE INFINITIVE : PARSING

1. Notice the parsing of these infinitives :

1. To forgive our enemies is divine.

To forgive is a verb, irregular, transitive, active ; infinitive, present ; it has the construction of a noun, nominative, subject of *is*.

2. The field to be plowed was rough.

To be plowed is a verb, regular, transitive, passive ; infinitive, present ; it has the construction of an adjective, modifying *field*.

3. My friend went to Europe to study music.

To study is a verb, regular, transitive, active ; infinitive, present ; it has the construction of an adverb, modifying *went*.

By some grammarians the infinitive and the participle are called modes of the verb. Notice that in parsing an infinitive, we say "infinitive" when we should give the mode in parsing a finite verb.

2. The following is a model for written parsing:

	CLASS AS TO FORM	CLASS AS TO MEANING	VOICE	INFINITIVE (MODE)	FORM (TENSE)	CONSTRUCTION
to forgive	irregular	transitive	active	infinitive	present	noun, subject of <i>is</i>
to be plowed	regular	transitive	pass.	infinitive	present	adj., modifying <i>field</i>
to study	regular	transitive	active	infinitive	present	adv., modifying <i>went</i>

To parse an infinitive is usually considered quite difficult, but it is easy if one has first learned how to parse a finite verb. In parsing an infinitive we use the form used in parsing a finite verb until we reach person ; then the infinitive ceases to be a verb and becomes a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

3. Parse the infinitives in these sentences :

1. The business of a cobbler is to mend shoes.
2. The king was prepared to leave for the war.
3. I offered him bread to eat and water to drink.
4. To strive hard is generally to succeed well.
5. To see the sun rise on the mountain is glorious.
6. Fools who came to scoff remained to pray.
7. I like to wander in the forests.
8. He was glad to meet me.
9. Do you know how to write a letter ?

you | Do know { to write
 how | letter

LESSON 81

PARTICIPLES

1. A Participle is a word derived from a verb, partaking of the properties of a verb and of an adjective or a noun.

The participle and the infinitive are sometimes called Non-Finite verbs.

2. There are three participles: the Present, the Past, and the Past-Perfect.

3. The following are the participles of the transitive verb *see* :

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past-Perfect</i>
ACTIVE: seeing	seen	having seen
PASSIVE: being seen	seen	having been seen

An intransitive verb has only the three active participles.

The names *present*, *past*, and *past-perfect* do not have reference to the time expressed by the participle, but to the form. The time depends on the finite verb of the sentence.

The past participle active is used in forming the three perfect tenses (present-perfect, past-perfect, and future-perfect) in the active voice; as, "I have seen." The past participle passive is used in forming all the tenses of the passive voice; as, "I have been seen."

4. Write the six participles of these verbs:

try write choose tear

5. Write the three participles of these verbs:

go walk fly run

6. Every participle is first of all a verb. As a verb it is regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive, active or passive, and may be modified by an adverb.

7. In addition to its verbal use the participle usually has the construction of an adjective or a noun.

8. Notice these sentences:

1. The seeds planted last week are coming up.
2. We increase our strength by taking exercise.

In the first sentence the participle *planted* modifies *seeds*; therefore, it has the construction of an adjective. In the second sentence the participle *taking* is the object of the preposition *by*; therefore, it has the construction of a noun.

9. In these sentences the participle has the construction of an adjective:

1. Not in the predicate:

Wealth *obtained* dishonestly soon disappears.

2. As attribute complement:

The child stood *weeping*. (*Weeping* tells the condition of the child, not the time, place, or manner of the standing.)

10. In these sentences the participle has the construction of a noun:

1. In the nominative case :

Reading good books is *getting* an education.

2. In the objective case :

We should avoid *injuring* the feelings of others.

11. Point out the participles in these sentences, and give the construction of each :

1. The bridge, weakened by the high water, could not support the train.
2. He spent hours in studying a single poem.
3. The general lay wounded on the field.
4. The lion stood looking at him.
5. His favorite pastime is telling stories to children.
(*Telling* has the construction of a noun.)
6. If you have not a good reason for doing a thing, you have a reason for not doing it.
7. They were sure of winning a prize.

LESSON 82

PARTICIPLES — Continued

Select the participles in these sentences, and give the construction of each :

1. The policeman found the criminal concealed in the bushes.
2. Cincinnatus was found plowing.
3. We obtain information by reading good books.
4. The philosopher sat buried in thought.
5. The letter written yesterday has been mailed.
6. He was pleased at winning the prize.
7. The soldier was promoted for doing his duty.
8. Much depends on his going now.
9. Doing good is being good.
10. Words once spoken cannot be recalled.
11. Lessons learned easily are usually soon forgotten.

12. Telling white lies is poor business.
13. The book lying on the table is a dictionary.
14. A photograph is a picture made by the sun.
15. Truth lies hidden in a well.
16. Genius is an immense capacity for taking trouble.

LESSON 83

ANALYSIS

1. Notice the analysis of this sentence :

We cannot help observing the homage paid by the world to virtue.

This is a simple, declarative sentence, of which *we* is the subject ; the remainder of the sentence is the complete predicate ; *can help* is the simple predicate, modified by *not*, an adverb ; *observing*, a participle with the construction of a noun, is the object ; *homage* is the object of *observing*, modified by *paid*, a participle with the construction of an adjective, modified by “ by the world ” and “ to virtue,” two prepositional adverb phrases.

2. Analyze these sentences :

1. The glory derived from riches and honors is short and frail.
2. A tint is made by mixing white with a color.
3. A shade is made by mixing black with a color.
4. A penny saved is a penny earned.
5. Often I sat in my room reading for the greater part of the night.
6. They live in a house overlooking the river.
7. We help ourselves by helping others.

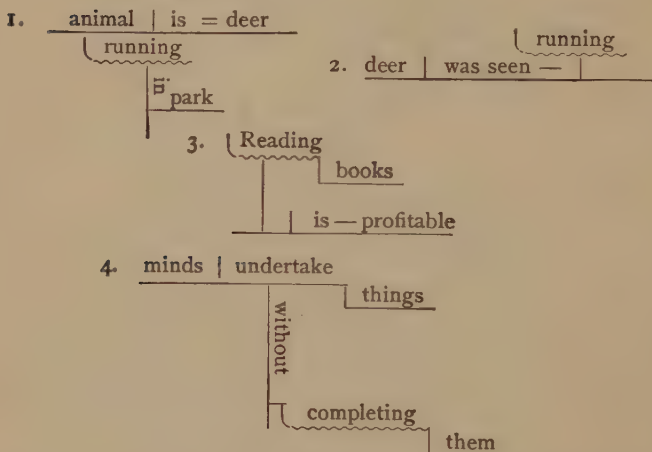
LESSON 84

DIAGRAMING

1. Notice these diagrams :

1. The animal running in the park is a deer.
2. The deer was seen running.

3. Reading good books is profitable.
4. Light minds undertake many things without completing them.



The only difference between the diagram for the participle and that for the infinitive is that the line under the participle is a wave line.

2. Diagram the sentences in lesson 82, except the fifth and the ninth.

Notice that in the eighth *going* is modified both by an adverb and a pronoun in the possessive case. This is possible because it comes from a verb (is a verb) and has the construction of a noun.

LESSON 85

PARTICIPLES : PARSING

1. Notice the parsing of these participles:

1. The telegram received yesterday came from Paris.

Received is a verb, regular, transitive, passive; participle, past; it has the construction of an adjective, modifying *telegram*.

2. He earned the money by selling papers.

Selling is a verb, irregular, transitive, active ; participle, present ; it has the construction of a noun, objective, object of the preposition *by*.

2. The following is a model for written parsing :

	CLASS AS TO FORM	CLASS AS TO MEANING	VOICE	PARTICIPLE (MODE)	FORM (TENSE)	CONSTRUCTION
received	regular	transitive	pass.	participle	past	adj., modifying <i>telegram</i>
selling	irregular	transitive	active	participle	present	noun, object of <i>by</i>

The model for parsing a participle is the same as that for parsing an infinitive.

3. Parse the participles in paragraph 11, lesson 81.

4. Parse the participles in these sentences :

1. A man's company is known by his manner of expressing himself.
2. Four beautiful girls, bearing the names of the principal goddesses, were her companions.

LESSON 86

PARTICIPLES, INFINITIVES : REVIEW

1. Write a sentence having a participle with the construction of —

1. An adjective, attribute complement.
2. An adjective, not attribute complement.
3. A noun, nominative.
4. A noun, objective.

2. Write the participles of these verbs :

chop

make

lie

grow

3. Diagram these sentences, and parse the participles and infinitives :

1. We should avoid injuring the feelings of others.
2. To meet you here is an unexpected pleasure.
3. I am sorry to hear that you are sick.
4. The reward of a thing well done is to have done it.
5. Rest is not quitting this busy career ;

Rest is the fitting of self to its sphere. — *Goethe*.

(*Fitting* in this sentence is a noun, not a participle.)

LESSON 87

VERBS : PRINCIPAL PARTS. — AUXILIARY VERBS

1. The conjugation of a verb is the orderly arrangement of its voices, modes, tenses, persons, and numbers.

Complete conjugation of the verb will be found in the next Grade.

2. Auxiliary Verbs are verbs used in the conjugation of other verbs. They are *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must*.

Do, be, and have are also used as principal verbs, and then they have all the modes and tenses of any verb.

3. *Can, may, shall, and will* have forms for the past ; as,

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
can	could	shall	should
may	would	will	would

These past forms seldom express past time. *Tense does not always mean time.*

In the conjugation of a verb, three of its forms, or parts, are used. One of these forms is found in every mode and tense. For example, in the conjugation of *go*, one of the forms *go, went, and gone* is used in every mode and tense. These three forms are called the Principal Parts of the verb.

4. The Principal Parts of a verb are those forms which are used in forming the different modes and tenses. They are the Indicative Present (without *s*), the Indicative Past, and the Past Participle.

In forming the different modes and tenses, different forms of the auxiliary verbs are placed before these principal parts.

The principal parts of regular verbs are easily formed, but those of some of the irregular verbs require careful study.

A complete list of irregular verbs, with the principal parts of each, will be found in Grade Eight.

5. Learn the principal parts of these irregular verbs:

<i>Present Indicative</i>	<i>Past Indicative</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
am	was	been
arise	arose	arisen
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
begin	began	begun
bring	brought	brought
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come

6. The past tense is never used with an auxiliary verb, and the past participle is never used without an auxiliary (sometimes understood).

7. Choose the right word, and give reasons:

1. The dog has (bit, bitten) the boy.
2. The wind has (blew, blown) that house down.
3. The slate is (broke, broken).
4. The work was (began, begun) very early.
5. School (began, begun) at eight o'clock this morning.
6. Whom have the boys (chose, chosen) as umpire?
7. This letter (come, came) yesterday.
8. It should have (come, came) the day before.

LESSON 88

SOME IRREGULAR VERBS TO BE STUDIED

1. Learn the principal parts of these irregular verbs :

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
do	did	done	go	went	gone
draw	drew	drawn	grow	grew	grown
drive	drove	driven	know	knew	known
eat	ate	eaten	ride	rode	ridden
fall	fell	fallen	ring	rang	rung
fly	flew	flown	rise	rose	risen
forsake	forsook	forsaken	run	ran	run
freeze	froze	frozen	see	saw	seen

2. Fill each of these blanks with either the past tense or the past participle of each of the above verbs :

1. It ——. 2. It has ——. 3. It had ——.

LESSON 89

SOME IRREGULAR VERBS TO BE STUDIED — Continued

1. Learn the principal parts of these irregular verbs :

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
shake	shook	shaken	swim	swam	swum
sing	sang	sung	take	took	taken
sink	sank	sunk	tear	tore	torn
speak	spoke	spoken	throw	threw	thrown
spring	sprang	sprung	wear	wore	worn
steal	stole	stolen	weave	wove	woven
swear	swore	sworn	write	wrote	written

2. Use orally the past tense or the past participle of each of the above verbs in each blank :

1. The boy ——. 2. The men have ——.

3. Use orally the past tense or the past participle of ten of the above verbs in each blank :

1. It was —. 2. It has been —.

LESSON 90

DRILL ON IRREGULAR VERBS

1. *Ought* is an old past tense form denoting present time. Since it has only the past tense, it cannot be used with an auxiliary.

2. Choose the correct word, and give reason for your choice :

1. He had (gone, went) before I (come, came).
2. They (sung, sang) several hymns.
3. The sailor (swam, swum) across the river.
4. Has the doctor (come, came) yet ?
5. She (ought, had ought) to go.
6. Some of our best apples were (stole, stolen).
7. That horseman has (rode, ridden) many miles to-day.
8. Have you (ate, eat, eaten) your dinner ?
9. Have you (broke, broken) your sled ?
10. No, it was (broke, broken) when I bought it.
11. We have (began, begun) just where they (began, begun) last year.
12. Have you (saw, seen) my new dress ?

3. Notice the principal parts of these verbs :

flee	fled	fled
flow	flowed	flowed (regular)
fly	flew	flown

Flee means to run away, *flow* is applied to liquids, and *fly* means to move through the air.

4. Select the correct word, and give reasons :

1. The land was (overflowed, overflowed) by the water.
2. The robin (fled, flew) from the tree.

3. The Indians were completely routed, and (flew, fled) into the mountains.
4. A brave man will often (fly, flee) from danger.

5. Use each of these words in a sentence :

flee flow fled flew flown flowed

LESSON 91

LIE, LAY ; SIT, SET ; RISE, RAISE

1. The following verbs should receive special study :

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
1.	{ lie lay	lying laying	lay laid	lain laid
2.	{ sit set	sitting setting	sat set	sat set
3.	{ rise raise	rising, raising	rose raised	risen raised

The first verb of each of the above pairs is intransitive ; therefore it cannot be used with an object nor in the passive voice. The second verb of each pair is transitive ; therefore it can be used only with an object or in the passive voice. *Set*, when applied to the sun, or when meaning to start on a journey, is intransitive.

2. In the following sentences the preceding verbs are used correctly :

1. After the game, the ball-players lay down to rest.
2. The pupil laid his book on the table, and there it still lies.
3. The foundation stones were laid in cement. (Notice that *were laid* is passive, therefore transitive.)
4. Henry is sitting on the porch, and Joseph is setting out tomato plants.
5. I raised my window as soon as I rose this morning.
6. The old man sat in the corner while his daughter set the table.

7. The boy was lying in the shade while his father was laying brick.
8. The traveler rose early, and set out at six o'clock.

3. Select the correct word, and give the reason for your selection :

1. Henry, (lie, lay) down and take a nap.
2. Henry (lay, laid) down and took a nap.
3. The weary old man had (lain, laid) down to rest.
4. The river (raised, rose) two feet yesterday.
5. (Set, sit) yourself down, and (set, sit) still.
6. We found the coat (lying, laying) in the road.
7. Much land was (lain, laid) waste by the high water.
8. The trial was (sat, set) for the next week.
9. What plans are you (lying, laying) now?
10. I remember when the corner stone was (lain, laid).
11. That boy generally (lies, lays) in bed till he is called.
12. She has (sat, set) there a long time.
13. The shower has (lain, laid) the dust.
14. The hen is (sitting, setting).

LESSON 92

SHALL AND WILL

1. In forming the future tense we use *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third persons to express simple futurity, but we use *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third persons to express the ideas of promise, determination, command, obligation, etc.

"I will be there" expresses determination or promise. "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God" is a command. "He shall go" (that is, I will compel him) expresses obligation or necessity.

2. In questions *shall* is always used in the first per-

son, but in the second and third persons we use the auxiliary expected in the answer.

"Shall you go?" expects the answer "I shall." "Will they go?" expects the answer "They will."

3. In these sentences *shall* and *will* are used correctly:

1. I shall be glad to go.
2. You will enjoy the music.
3. You shall not remain if I can prevent it.
4. Where shall we stay?
5. Shall we ever learn to use *shall* and *will* correctly?
6. Will they return the book?
7. I fear we shall have rain.
8. I fear he will neglect his business.
9. Where shall you be next week? I shall be in Charleston.
10. We will do our duty.

4. Explain the difference in meaning of the sentences in each pair:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. { 1. He will go.
2. He shall go. | 2. { 1. Will he go?
2. Shall he go? |
| 3. { 1. You will leave me.
2. You shall leave me. | 4. { 1. Will you leave me?
2. Shall you leave me? |
| 5. { 1. The admission will be free.
2. The admission shall be free. | |
| 6. { 1. You will not see any one this afternoon.
2. You shall not see any one this afternoon. | |

5. Fill each blank with *shall* or *will*, and give the reason for your choice:

1. — he remain? He —.
2. — I be in time for the train?
3. Depend on me, for I — be there.

4. I fear that I — catch cold.
5. If you — not assist me, I — not be able to finish it in time.
6. I hope you — soon be better.
7. — we wait till they return?
8. — you wait till they return? I —

LESSON 93

SELECTING CORRECT WORD

1. Select the proper word in each parenthesis :

1. I told him to (lie, lay) down, and he (lay, laid) down.
2. (Can, may) I be excused?
3. Our task is not yet (begun, began).
4. Brother Charles is taller than (any, any other) member of our family.
5. Each of the states (has, have) two senators.
6. One swallow (don't, doesn't) make a summer.
7. Try (and, to) secure the prize.
8. I (expect, guess, think) he has gone to Europe.
9. Mother has a (bad, severe) headache.
10. The man the doctor visited is very (bad, sick).
11. Will you (learn, teach) me to skate?
12. My father says he (don't, doesn't) believe any of these rumors.
13. (He, him) that overcometh will I make a pillar of the temple.
14. We (shall, will) be pleased if you (shall, will) favor us.
15. It (will, shall) probably rain to-day.
16. (Shall, will) I find you when I return?
17. I am afraid they (shall, will) miss the train.
18. He says we (may, can) catch the horse, but (may, can) we do it?

(Make different meanings from the above sentence.)

19. He (don't, doesn't) live there now.

2. Note the difference in the meaning of the sentences of each pair :

1. { 1. He will pay the bill next week.
2. He shall pay the bill next week.
2. { 1. You will not disturb us.
2. You shall not disturb us.

3. Each of these sentences is ambiguous ; that is, it has more than one meaning. Change them so that each shall have but one meaning.

1. Ask how old Mrs. Jones is.
2. I have not heard from one of my friends.
3. I should like to visit you very much.
4. I heard all you said very distinctly.

LESSON 94

VERBS: REVIEW

Diagram these sentences, and parse the verbs, including the participles and the infinitives :

1. No more was seen the fairy isle.
 2. The road up the mountain is very steep.
 3. On fame's eternal camping ground
Their silent tents are spread.
 4. That adversity is a hard school, is admitted.
 5. He knew not that the chieftain lay unconscious of his son.
 6. He lived in a house where Longfellow lived.
 7. God never imposes a duty without giving the time to do it. (*To do* modifies *time*.)
 8. I remember, I remember the house where I was born.
- (Use "I remember" but once in the diagram or analysis.)

LESSON 95

ADVERBS

1. An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

2. According to their office in the sentence, adverbs are divided into Simple Adverbs, Interrogative Adverbs, and Conjunctive Adverbs.

3. A Simple Adverb simply modifies the word with which it is used; as,

1. The victory was *fairly* won.

2. *How well* she can play!

4. An Interrogative Adverb is an adverb used in asking a question; as,

1. *Why* is the sea salt?

2. *Where* have the birds gone?

In the first sentence *why* is an interrogative adverb modifying *is*.

When such sentences are used as noun clauses in a complex sentence, the adverbs are still interrogative adverbs modifying the same word; as, "I do not know *why* the sea is salt." *Why* still modifies *is*, and the clause is said to be indirectly interrogative.

5. A Conjunctive Adverb modifies a word in a dependent clause, and also joins that clause to the modified word or words in the independent clause.

In "I will go where he goes" *where* modifies *goes* and joins the dependent clause to *will go*, the words the clause modifies.

The principal conjunctive adverbs are *when, where, why, while whenever, wherever, as, and than*.

6. According to their meaning, adverbs are divided as follows:

1. Adverbs of Place ; as, where, here, etc.
2. Adverbs of Time ; as, now, again, etc.
3. Adverbs of Number ; as, once, twice, thirdly, etc.
4. Adverbs of Manner ; as, how, well, so, etc.
5. Adverbs of Degree ; as, very, too, much, etc.
6. Adverbs of Cause ; as, why, wherefore, etc.
7. Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation ; as, yes, no, yea, nay, etc.

Adverbs do not always belong to the same class. For instance, *how* and *as* are classed above as adverbs of manner, but they may be adverbs of degree.

1. How he manages it is not known. (Manner.)
2. How beautiful the day is! (Degree.)
3. He lived so as to win the esteem of his neighbors. (Manner.)
4. She looks so well. (Degree.)

7. Some adverbs have the property of comparison. They are compared in the same manner as adjectives.

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
soon	sooner	soonest
carefully	more carefully	most carefully

8. Some adverbs are composed of two or more words that cannot be parsed separately. These may be called Phrase Adverbs (not adverb phrases). Examples :

by and by	at all	after all
one by one	at once	at least
in general	at last	ere long

9. *There*, while frequently an adverb of place, is sometimes merely an introductory word ; as,

There is nothing to be gained by this.

When a sentence is introduced by *there*, the verb usually precedes the subject.

10. Notice the parsing of these adverbs :

1. How rapidly the moments fly!

Rapidly is a simple adverb of manner, modifying *fly*. *How* is a simple adverb of degree, modifying *rapidly*.

2. Whither have they gone?

Whither is an interrogative adverb of place, modifying *have gone*.

3. He is no longer happy.

Longer is a simple adverb of time, comparative, modifying *is*. *No* is a simple adverb of negation, modifying *longer*.

4. I do not know where he lives.

Where is an interrogative (indirect) adverb of place, modifying *lives*.

5. You should think while you read.

While is a conjunctive adverb of time, modifying *read*, and connecting the dependent clause to *should think*.

6. They answered at once.

At once is a phrase adverb of time, modifying *answered*.

11. Parse the adverbs in these sentences :

1. They lived together very happily.
2. How excellent is thy name!
3. These scenes, once so delightful, no longer please him.
4. Have you heard why he enlisted?
5. Having duly arranged his affairs, he departed immediately.
6. There eternal summer dwells.
7. My eyes make pictures when they are shut.

LESSON 96

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS: DISTINCTION

1. Only one negative should be used in making a denial.

"I didn't say nothing" should be "I didn't say anything," or "I said nothing."

2. Adverbs should not be used for adjectives, nor adjectives for adverbs.

1. They lived in a comfortable house.

Comfortable is an adjective, modifying *house*.

2. They lived comfortable in that house.

This is incorrect because the adjective *comfortable* is used to modify the verb *lived*. *Comfortable* should be changed to *comfortably*.

3. I slept good last night.

This is incorrect because the adjective *good* is used to modify the verb *slept*. The correct form is "I slept well last night."

3. When a word is used as the attribute complement to express the condition of the subject, it should be an adjective, not an adverb. The following sentences are all correct :

1. The sky looks beautiful.
2. Velvet feels smooth.
3. That child feels sad.
4. The apple tastes sour.
5. Speak more distinctly.
6. You behaved properly.
7. They came quickly.
8. The girl sings well.

In the first four sentences *beautiful*, *smooth*, *sad*, and *sour* are adjectives, modifying the subject. The sky cannot look in a certain manner because it has no eyes. Velvet cannot feel in a certain manner because it has no nerves.

Usually we should use the same word after *appear*, *feel*, *look*, *seem*, *smell*, *taste*, etc., that we should use after *is* or *are* in the same sentence.

4. Select the correct word, and give reasons:

1. The edge of the knife feels (sharp, sharply).
2. The air feels (cold; coldly).

3. The air feels (chill, chilly). (Not every word ending in *ly* is an adverb.)
4. Does she play (well, good)?
5. That lady feels (bad, badly).
6. The teacher was (tolerable, tolerably) well informed.
7. We arrived (safe, safely).
8. She dresses (suitable, suitably) to her station and means.
9. The eggs were boiled (soft, softly).
10. The slaves were treated (harsh, harshly).
11. The singer's voice seemed (harsh, harshly).
12. He worked (hard, hardly).

(Sometimes the adjective and the adverb have the same form.)

13. The light seems (dim, dimly).

LESSON 97

ADVERBS — Continued

1. In these sentences make the corrections needed :

1. A miser never gives anything to nobody.
2. The train doesn't wait for no one.
3. The doctor said she would never be no better.
4. I don't want neither of these two books.
5. The prisoner never made no answer to the question.

2. Adverbs should be so placed that there can be no doubt as to what they are intended to modify.

In these sentences notice the change of meaning caused by changing the location of *only* :

1. Only that child can spell words of two syllables.
No other child can spell such words.

2. That only child can spell words of two syllables.
The child has neither brother nor sister.

3. That child only can spell words of two syllables.
Means the same as the first.

4. That child can only spell words of two syllables.

That child can spell words of two syllables, but can do nothing else — cannot pronounce them.

5. That child can spell only words of two syllables.

That child cannot spell other words.

6. That child can spell words of only two syllables.

That child can spell such small words as have only two syllables.

7. That child can spell words of two syllables only.

Means the same as the fifth.

3. Change the location of the italicized word in these sentences as often as possible, and give the change in meaning :

1. I *then* understood why you did not go.
2. *Only* yesterday I received an order for fifty of that kind.
3. I saw him *alone*.
4. Boys and girls *only* whisper in school.
5. A man with a wheelbarrow can earn a dollar in *only* half a day.

4. Notice these sentences, and explain the meaning of each :

1. Only the address can be written on this side.
2. The address can only be written on this side.
3. The address can be written on this side only.

5. Improve the location of the adverb in each of these sentences :

1. We only recite three lessons a day.
2. Every man cannot afford to keep a coach.
3. The sick man was expected to die often.
4. All men are not educated.
5. I shall be glad to see you always.
6. Such prices are only paid in times of great scarcity.

LESSON 98

ADVERBS — Continued

1. Usually an adverb should not separate *to* and the verb of an infinitive. "To give cheerfully" is better than "to cheerfully give."

Some good writers disregard the above rule.

2. Explain the difference in meaning of the two sentences of each pair :

1. { 1. The boy appeared prompt.
2. The boy appeared promptly.

2. { 1. The apple looks well.
2. The apple looks good.

3. { 1. I found the way easy.
2. I found the way easily.

4. { 1. The lady looked cold.
2. The lady looked coldly at me.

5. { 1. The bashful young man appeared very awkward.
2. The bashful young man appeared very awkwardly.

3. Improve the location of the adverb in each of these sentences :

1. The secretary was expected to resign daily.
2. All stories are not to be believed.
3. We should even love our enemies.
4. He chiefly buys his goods in New York.
5. He scarcely does any work.
6. They only rent the store, not the house.
7. His dexterity almost appeared miraculous.
8. Two young ladies came to the party nearly dressed alike.
9. Having nearly lost a thousand dollars by the transaction, I cannot afford to venture again.

10. He must have wanted to see them very much.
11. He is rather a good boy.
12. The Chinese chiefly live on rice.
13. We nearly walked ten miles.

LESSON 99

ADVERBS — Continued

1. Select the proper word :

1. (Real, really) honest men can be found.
2. They acted very (noble, nobly).
3. The jeweler's window looked (splendid, splendidly).
4. The ship reached port (safe, safely).
5. The tired hands wandered (idle, idly) over the keys.
6. The dog looked (fierce, fiercely).
7. The dog looked (fierce, fiercely) at us.

2. Some of these sentences are incorrect. Make the changes necessary.

1. That is a remarkably beautiful flower.
2. That flower is remarkable for its beauty.
3. That penman writes remarkable well.
4. How sweetly those blossoms smell !
5. He could scarcely restrain himself.
6. He looked glad when his brother came.
7. The house was made strongly.
8. The child was dressed comfortably.
9. We merely speak of ourselves.
10. It will be necessary to entirely change our plans.
11. I do not speak neither French nor German.
12. The boy was called sly.
13. The boy was called slyly.
14. To patiently bear suffering is the characteristic of a great mind.
15. No goods will not be removed.
16. I have decided to carefully read that celebrated oration.

LESSON 100

REVIEW

Name the adjectives and the adverbs in these sentences, and tell what word each modifies :

1. The flowers appear dead.
2. The stars look small.
3. Many poisonous plants grow wild.
4. They that govern the most make the least noise.

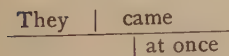
The most should be taken together as an adverb of the superlative degree.

5. He lives longest that thinks the most.
6. There lay the rider, distorted and pale.
7. A wondrous portal opened wide.
8. The boy fell dead.
9. The clouds hung low and thick.
10. The woods turned golden and crimson and scarlet.
11. The dog went mad.
12. The king lay helpless.
13. The boat was tied fast.
14. The world appears flat.
15. They came together.
16. At length, he ended his address.
17. They will come by and by.
18. An owl looks wise.

LESSON 101

DIAGRAMING

1. Notice this diagram :



Since *at once* is parsed together as a phrase adverb, the words are not separated in the diagram.

2. Diagram the sentences in lesson 100.

LESSON 102

PREPOSITIONS

1. A Preposition is a word used to show the relation of its object to the word the phrase modifies.

2. Sometimes two or more words are combined and used as one preposition. These may be called Phrase Prepositions.

The principal phrase prepositions are : according to, as to, as for, from under, from above, in front of, instead of, in respect to, in place of, in regard to, over against.

3. Use five different phrase prepositions in sentences.

4. Some words, originally participles, are now sometimes used as prepositions ; as,

concerning regarding respecting barring

5. The object of a preposition may be a word, phrase, or clause ; as,

1. Many persons live in *cities*.
2. He is happy nowhere except *in cities*.
3. The messenger started before *sunrise*.
4. The messenger started before "the sun had risen."

6. When a preposition has no object, it frequently becomes an adverb or an adjective ; as,

1. The days are passing *by* (adverb).
2. He is in the office *below* (adjective).

7. The preposition usually precedes its object.

In poetry the preposition sometimes follows its object ; as, "the rattling crags among."

When the object is the relative *that*, it always precedes the preposition ; as, "Attention is the stuff that memory is made of."

Frequently in interrogative sentences a preposition is placed at the end of the sentence; as, "What are we coming to?" "Whom did he speak of?"

8. Care should be taken to use appropriate prepositions.

Between refers to two objects, and *among* refers to more than two objects. *In* denotes motion or position within certain limits, and *into* denotes entrance. "He runs in the house" means that he is in the house, and is running. "He runs into the house" means that he runs from the outside into the inside.

The words *on to* and *off of* should not be used.

Some words require special prepositions after them; as,

acquit of	differ from (in appearance)
agree with (a person)	differ with (in opinion)
agree to (a statement)	die of (a disease)
congenial to	rid of

9. Make the corrections necessary:

1. He fell from the bridge in the water.
2. He was accused for robbery.
3. The prisoner was acquitted from the charge of robbery.
4. Divide the apples between the two girls.
5. The money was divided equally between the four heirs.

LESSON 103

PREPOSITIONS — Continued

1. Fill each blank with an appropriate preposition:

1. He died — fever.
2. The prisoner is accused — stealing.
3. He was eager — the study of Latin.
4. This work is different — that. (*Different* should not be followed by *than*.)
5. I differ — you on that point.
6. You may rely — what I say.
7. He is so honest that his friends confide — him.

8. There is much need — preparation.
9. The laws of those people are different — ours.
10. The drayman is putting the coal — the bin.
11. This soil is adapted — corn.
12. He poured the vinegar — the bottle.

2. Correct where necessary :

1. Take your book off of the table.
2. She threw her cloak on to a chair.
3. Try to rid yourself from all prejudice.
4. The band was followed by a large crowd.
5. The sufferers are in need for much money.
6. We were admitted in the society.
7. To what rank will he be raised to?

LESSON 104

REVIEW

1. Write a sentence having —

1. A phrase preposition.
2. A preposition ending in *ing*.
3. A phrase used as the object of a preposition.
4. A clause used as the object of a preposition.
5. A preposition used as an adverb.
6. A preposition used as an adjective.
7. A preposition for the last word.

2. Notice the parsing of this preposition :

We are living in a great age.

In is a preposition, showing the relation of *age* to *are living*.

3. Diagram these sentences, and parse the prepositions :

1. The waves beat against the windows from morning till night. (*Beat* is modified by three phrases.)
2. The rain falls from the clouds to the earth.
3. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.
4. Summer in Nantucket is a glory of color and perfume.

5. Thoughts of courage, self-reliance, and decision crystallize into manly habits.
6. On the stream and wood, with melancholy light, the moonbeams rest.
7. Out of nothing, nothing comes.

LESSON 105

CONJUNCTIONS

1. A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, and clauses.

A conjunction is sometimes used simply as an introductory word. In "I know that he will return," *that* is not a connective; it simply introduces the noun clause.

2. Sometimes two or more words are combined and used as one conjunction; as, as if, as well as, etc. These may be called Phrase Conjunctions.

3. According to use, conjunctions are divided into Coördinate and Subordinate.

4. A Coördinate Conjunction connects elements of equal rank. The most common are —

and	as well as	either or	or
but	both and	neither nor	nor
however	therefore	but yet	hence

The conjunction connecting the clauses of a compound sentence is a coördinate conjunction.

5. A Subordinate Conjunction connects elements of unequal rank. The most common are —

because	for	since	as if
if	unless	that	in order that
except	though	although	provided that

A subordinate conjunction is always in a complex sentence, and joins the dependent clause to the independent clause.

6. According to the meaning of the dependent clause, subordinate conjunctions are divided into conjunctions of time, cause, condition, purpose, concession, etc.

7. Use in a sentence —

1. A phrase conjunction.
2. A coördinate conjunction.
3. A subordinate conjunction of cause.
4. A subordinate conjunction of condition.
5. A subordinate conjunction of concession.

8. Notice the parsing of these conjunctions:

1. Violets and dandelions are flowers.

And is a conjunction, coördinate, connecting *violets* and *dandelions*.

2. The student went to Italy in order that he might study art.

In order that is a conjunction, subordinate of purpose, connecting the dependent clause to *went*.

9. Parse the conjunctions in these sentences:

1. The field is small, but fertile.
2. Death entombs the body, but life entombs the soul.
3. That man acts as if he were angry.
4. We eat that we may live.

10. Diagram the sentences in the preceding paragraph.

LESSON 106

INTERJECTIONS: DIAGRAMING

1. An Interjection is a word used to denote strong feeling or emotion.

Interjections have no grammatical construction, and in the diagram they are not connected with the sentence.

Words from almost any other part of speech may become interjections; as, *What! Well! Dear me!*

O is generally used before words of address, and *oh* before words expressing emotion ; as,

1. Great and manifold are thy works, O Lord !
2. Oh ! How you frightened me !

2. Interjections are generally followed by the exclamation point. If the interjection does not express strong feeling, or if the feeling continues through the entire expression, a comma is usually placed after the interjection, and the exclamation point is placed at the end.

The exclamation point should not be used after *O*.

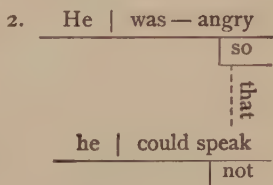
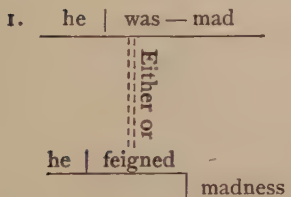
3. Notice these sentences :

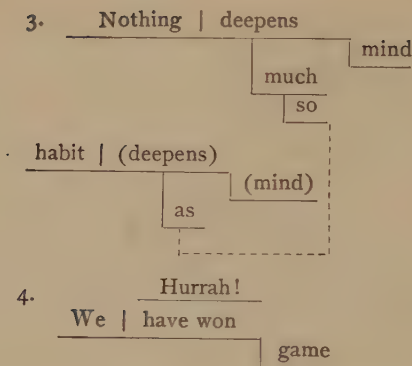
1. { 1. She sings and plays.
2. She both sings and plays.
2. { 1. He was mad, or he feigned madness admirably.
2. Either he was mad, or he feigned madness admirably.

The two sentences of each pair mean the same, but the second sentence is more emphatic than the first. In the first pair, *both and* performs the same office as *and*, and in the second pair, *either or* performs the same office as *or*. In such sentences *both and*, *either or*, *neither nor*, etc., should be taken together as emphatic, or strengthened, conjunctions.

4. Notice these diagrams :

1. Either he was mad, or he feigned madness admirably.
2. He was so angry that he could not speak.
3. Nothing deepens the mind so much as the habit of charity.
4. Hurrah ! We have won the game.





5. Diagram these sentences, and classify the adverbs and conjunctions :

1. Love is sunshine, but hate is shadow.
2. He is not qualified for teaching either mathematics or language.
3. Nothing either strange or interesting has occurred.
4. I shall depend on neither you nor him.
5. It is said that men of few words are the best men.
6. He speaks as he thinks.
7. She looks as if she had studied hard.
8. We punish a man that he may offend no more.
9. Speak the speech as I pronounced it to you.

LESSON 107

DIAGRAMMING

Diagram these sentences :

1. In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas, distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand Pré lay in the fruitful valley. — *Longfellow*.
2. The warriors on the turrets high,
Moving athwart the evening sky,
Seemed forms of giant height. — *Scott*.

3. And pleasantly under the silver moon, and under the silent solemn stars, ring the steel shoes of the skaters on the frozen sea.
4. If any one attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot. — *John A. Dix.*
5. I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided, and that is the lamp of experience. — *Patrick Henry.*
6. There will be no night there.
7. Arnold turned traitor.
8. I hope to meet my pilot face to face.
9. There is no lazy way to truth.
10. Hark ! On the winds the bell's sweet tones are knelling.
11. A dishonest man may have some admirable virtues ; an honest man may have some obnoxious vices.
12. When my ship comes in from over the sea,
Such wonderful things it will bring to me.
13. He has but one great fear that fears to do wrong.

LESSON 108

ANALYSIS

1. Analyze the first three sentences in the preceding lesson.
2. Parse the infinitives and participles of the preceding lesson.

LESSON 109

PUNCTUATION

1. The clauses of a compound sentence are separated by a comma.

If the clauses have parts separated by commas, the clauses themselves are separated by the semicolon.

2. Notice the punctuation of these sentences :

1. William Penn, who was a Quaker, founded Philadelphia.
2. The answer, however, was incorrect.
3. "I will come," she said, "if I have time."

In the first sentence, the clause "who was a Quaker" is parenthetical; that is, it can be omitted without spoiling the sense. The same is true of *however* in the second sentence, and of *she said* in the third sentence.

3. Parenthetical expressions are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

4. Notice the punctuation of these sentences :

1. We shall begin our work next week.
2. Next week, we shall begin our work.
3. We, next week, shall begin our work.
4. When the time came for the train to leave, we were all at the station.
5. We were all at the station when the time came for the train to leave.

An adverb phrase or clause is out of its natural order when it begins a sentence, or when it stands between a verb and its subject.

5. When a phrase or a clause is out of its natural order, it is usually separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

GRADE EIGHT

LESSON 1

DEFINITIONS

1. Language is any means of communicating ideas.
2. Natural Language is the expression of ideas by gestures and tones. (Not by words, but by laughing, crying, etc.)
3. Artificial Language is the expression of ideas by words.
4. Spoken Language is the use of words composed of sounds.
5. Written Language is the use of words composed of letters.
6. Grammar is the science of language.
7. English Grammar is the science of the English language.

Rhetoric, Elocution, and Logic are also branches of language study.

Grammar treats of words and sentences, Rhetoric treats of the elegance and force of the written expression, Elocution treats of the vocal delivery, and Logic treats of the thoughts in respect to truth and reason.

8. Grammar is usually divided into Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

9. Orthography treats of the spelling and pronunciation of words.

The subject of orthography is not usually presented in grammars, but in spelling books and special books on the subject.

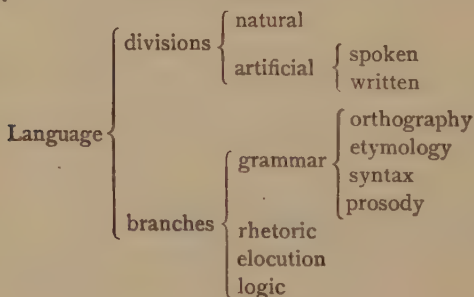
10. Etymology treats of the classification, properties, and derivation of words.

11. Syntax treats of the arrangement, relation, and agreement of words in sentences.

12. Prosody treats of the principles which govern the construction of poetry.

Prosody is usually discussed in books on rhetoric.

13. The following is an outline of the preceding definitions:



LESSON 2

VARIETIES OF COMPOUND SENTENCES

1. According to the form of the members there are many varieties of compound sentences. If the sentence has but two members, the following varieties may be found:

1. Both members simple :

A soft answer turneth away wrath, but grievous words
stir up anger.

2. One member simple, the other complex :

Heaven is not reached by a single bound,
But we build the ladder by which we climb.

3. One member simple, the other compound :

The moon was shining, but the way was long, and the
night was cold.

4. One member complex, the other compound :

You should be courageous, and you should be independent ;
but remember where the true courage and indepen-
dence come from.

5. Both members complex :

There is beauty in the forest,
When the leaves are green and fair ;
And there's beauty in the meadow,
Where wild flowers scent the air.

6. Both members compound :

The political campaign was carried on with energy, and
many eloquent speeches were made ; but the voters
were not interested, and many did not go to the polls.

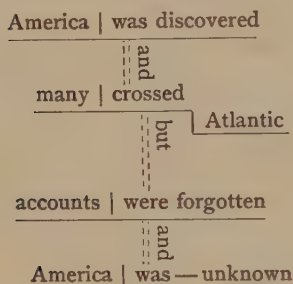
If the sentence has more than two members, many more varieties
may be found.

Notice that there is a difference between a compound sentence
with four simple members, and a compound sentence with two com-
pound members. In the sixth sentence the first two propositions
are connected by *and*, and the second two are connected by *and*,
but the two compound members are connected by *but*. In other
words, each two of the propositions are connected copulatively, but
the two members are connected adversatively. (*And* is a copulative
conjunction, *but* is an adversative conjunction.)

If we change the sentence to "The political campaign was carried
on with energy, many eloquent speeches were made, the voters were
much interested, and nearly every one went to the polls," we have a
compound sentence with four simple members.

2. Notice this diagram :

In the tenth century America was discovered by the Northmen, and many of these bold navigators crossed the Atlantic; but soon all accounts of the discovery were forgotten, and America was again unknown to Europeans.



The propositions composing a member should be placed nearer to each other than the two members.

3. Diagram the six sentences given in paragraph 1.

4. Write or find one compound sentence of each of the six varieties given.

LESSON 3

VARIETIES OF COMPLEX SENTENCES

1. According to the form of the clauses, there are different varieties of complex sentences. If the sentence has but two clauses, the following varieties may be found :

1. Both clauses simple :

He that is down need fear no fall.

2. One clause simple, the other complex :

If you would find a wretched man or woman in your neighborhood, look for the one that has nothing to do.

3. One clause simple, the other compound :

If our association did not have that amount in its treasury, the receiver would be called in, and the door would be closed.

4. One clause complex, the other compound :

When he saw the two strange figures who were sitting near the fireplace, he stood for a moment immovable, and then he left the room.

5. Both clauses complex :

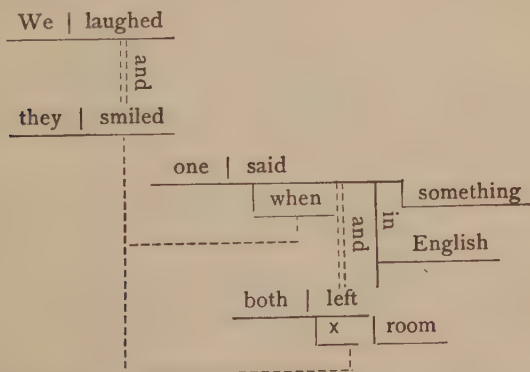
When a third man appeared, who wore a double-breasted coat, we received our breakfast, which had become quite cold.

6. Both clauses compound :

We laughed and they smiled, when one of them said something in English and both left the room.

If the sentence has more than two clauses, many other varieties may be found.

2. Notice this diagram (sixth sentence in paragraph 1) :



Each proposition of the dependent clause modifies each predicate of the independent clause, and the dotted line from *when* might extend to *laughed*, but it is unnecessary.

3. Diagram all the sentences of paragraph 1 except the sixth.

4. Write or find one complex sentence of each of the six varieties given.

LESSON 4

DEPENDENT CLAUSES: CLASSES ACCORDING TO USE

1. According to use dependent clauses are divided into Adjective Clauses, Adverb Clauses, and Noun Clauses, but there are several varieties of each of the last two. The clause may be —

1. An adjective clause.
2. An adverb clause of time.
3. An adverb clause of place.
4. An adverb clause of manner; as, "He speaks as he thinks."

There are many adverbs of manner, but few adverb clauses of manner.

5. An adverb clause of degree; as, "He is so old that he cannot work."

So is an adverb of degree, telling how old; but it is indefinite, and the assistance of the clause is needed to make the meaning definite. The clause modifies *so*.

6. An adverb clause of concession; as, "Although the train was heavily loaded, the engine pulled it with ease."

In a dependent clause of concession, something is granted (conceded), and then the independent clause contains a statement hardly expected.

7. An adverb clause of purpose; as, "We study that we may learn."
8. An adverb clause of cause; as, "We rest because we are tired."

9. An adverb clause of condition.
10. An adverb clause of specification; as, "The jury is confident that the prisoner is guilty."

The clause modifies the adjective *confident*, specifying as to what, or concerning what, the jury is confident.

11. A noun clause used as the subject.
12. A noun clause used as the attribute complement.
13. A noun clause used as the object.
14. A noun clause used as the object of a preposition; as, "Some men have no clear ideas of why schools are established."
15. A noun clause used as an appositive.

Most authors do not use the term "clause of specification." In such sentences as that given in number ten, they would supply "of this thing," or "of this fact" after *confident*, making the completed sentence read "The jury is confident of this thing, that the prisoner is guilty." This makes the clause a noun clause in apposition with *thing*, but it is much better to call it an adverb clause modifying *confident*. Other clauses of specification are found in these sentences: "We are sure that he will return"; "We are not certain that an open sea surrounds the north pole"; "They are afraid that the canal will not be dug." Notice that each of these clauses modifies an adjective.

2. Write or find fifteen complex sentences — one for each variety of dependent clauses given in paragraph 1.

LESSON 5

PHRASES CLASSIFIED

1. With respect to introductory word, phrases are Prepositional, Infinitive, Participial, and Substantive.

2. A Prepositional Phrase is a phrase introduced by a preposition.

3. An Infinitive Phrase is a phrase introduced by an infinitive.

4. A Participial Phrase is a phrase introduced by a participle.

5. A Substantive Phrase is a phrase introduced by a substantive; as,

1. I wish Horace to study music.

2. You want him to come.

In the first sentence, the object of *wish* is "Horace to study music." This is a phrase, and since it is introduced by *Horace*, a substantive, it is a substantive phrase. "To study music," taken alone, is an infinitive phrase. In the second sentence, "him to come," the object of *want*, is a substantive phrase because it is introduced by *him*, a substantive.

In poetry, the preposition, infinitive, participle, or substantive is not always the first word of the phrase, but it will be the first word when the phrase is arranged in its natural order.

These four classes of phrases include all that are usually considered phrases by grammarians, but many other expressions are really phrases. The following are examples:

has been gone
old men

a large field
very good

The preceding are phrases because "they are groups of words properly combined but not expressing a thought."

6. With respect to form, phrases are divided into Simple, Complex, and Compound.

7. A Simple Phrase is a single phrase.

A simple phrase may have one of its principal elements compound; as, "in city and hamlet"; "to and from the house"; "for studying history and geography."

8. A Complex Phrase is a phrase having one of its

parts modified by another phrase; as, "on the top of the mountain"; "polishing a piece of silver."

9. A Compound Phrase is a phrase composed of two or more connected phrases; as, "entering the house and going upstairs"; "to steal and to swear"; "to the city and to the country."

10. With respect to the office of the words, phrases are Separable and Inseparable.

11. A Separable Phrase is a phrase whose parts, or words, can be parsed separately.

12. An Inseparable Phrase is a phrase whose words cannot be parsed separately; as, "at once," "in vain," "to go."

Once is not the object of *at*, but the two words should be parsed together. Infinitives are inseparable phrases.

13. With respect to use, phrases are Adjective, Adverb, and Noun.

14. Notice the classification of these phrases:

1. Bangor is in Maine.

"In Maine" is a phrase, prepositional, simple, separable, adverb.

2. I knew him to be an honest man.

"*Him* to be an honest man" is a phrase, substantive, complex, separable, noun. It is complex because "to be an honest man" is a phrase modifying *him*. "To be an honest man" is a phrase, infinitive, simple, separable, adjective.

3. The bird sitting on the top of the tree is a robin.

"Sitting on the top of the tree" is a phrase, participial, complex, separable, adjective. "On the top of the tree" is a phrase, prepositional, complex, separable, adverb. "Of the tree" is a phrase, prepositional, simple, separable, adjective.

15. Classify the phrases in these sentences :

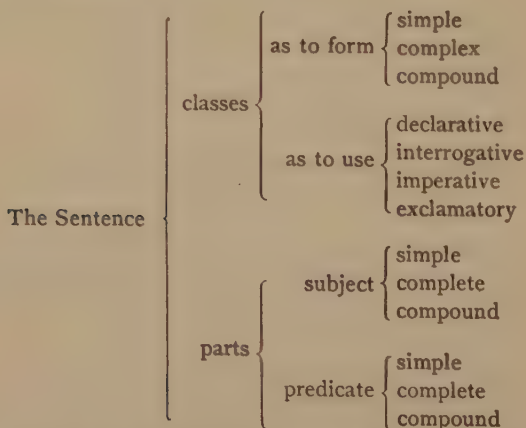
1. Sweet is the breath of morn.
2. The greater part of Africa belongs to Europeans.
3. An angry man is again angry with himself on returning to reason.
4. It is the finest thing in the world to live : most people only exist.
5. The valley, surrounded by lofty mountains, was protected from severe storms.
6. Tent life, of late, has become a fashion.
7. The building standing on the top of the high mountain is an old castle.

LESSON 6

OUTLINES OF SENTENCE, CLAUSE, PHRASE

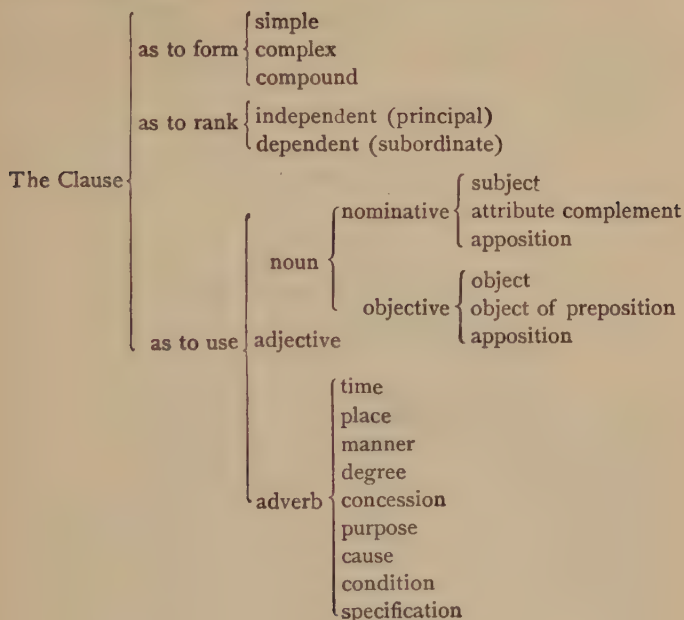
1. Study these outlines :

1. The Sentence.

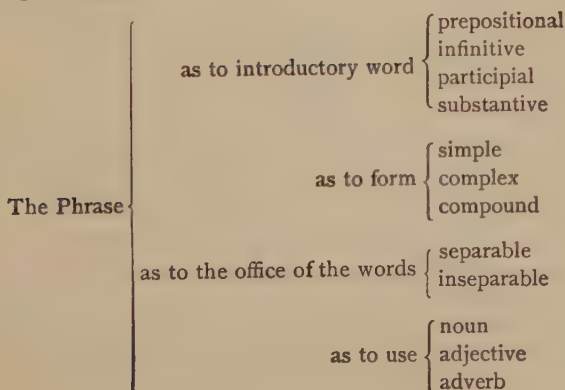


The object is not mentioned because it is included in the complete predicate.

2. The Clause.



3. The Phrase.



2. Use each of these topics (the sentence, the clause, and the phrase) as the subject for a written review, or composition. Define each class and subclass, and give examples.

LESSON 7

ANALYSIS

1. Notice the analysis of these sentences:

When a third man appeared, who wore a double-breasted coat, we received our breakfast, which had become quite cold.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which *we* is the subject, and the rest of the sentence is the complete predicate. "We — cold" is the complex, independent clause, of which *we* is the subject; "received — cold" is the complete predicate; *received* is the simple predicate; *breakfast* is the object, modified by *our*, a personal pronoun in the possessive case, and also by "which — cold," a dependent, adjective clause, of which *which* is the subject, also the connective; "had — cold" is the complete predicate; *had become* is the simple predicate; *cold*, an adjective modifying the subject, is the attribute complement, modified by *quite*, an adverb. *Received* is modified by "When — coat," a complex, dependent adverb clause of time, of which "a third man who — coat" is the complete subject; *man* is the simple subject, modified by *a* and *third*, adjectives, also by "who — coat," a dependent, adjective clause, of which *who* is the subject, also the connective; "wore — coat" is the complete predicate; *wore* is the simple predicate; *coat* is the object, modified by *a* and *double-breasted*, adjectives. *Appeared* is the predicate, modified by *when*, a conjunctive adverb used as the connective.

2. We are sure that the doctor lives at the end of the street.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which *we* is the subject, and the remainder of the sentence is the complete predicate. "We are sure" is the independent clause, of which *we* is the subject; *are sure* is the complete predicate; *are* is the simple predicate; *sure*, an adjective modifying *we*, is the attribute complement, modified by

“that — street,” a dependent, adverb clause of specification, of which *the doctor* is the complete subject; *doctor* is the simple subject, modified by *the*, an adjective; “lives — street” is the complete predicate; *lives* is the simple predicate, modified by “at — street,” a prepositional, complex, adverb phrase, of which *at*, a preposition, is the introductory word; *end* is the object, modified by “of the street,” a prepositional, adjective phrase.

In analyzing, phrases are usually classified only as to introductory word and as to use.

2. Analyze these sentences :

1. Kind words are the blossoms,
And kind deeds are the fruits.
2. Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.
3. He doeth much who doeth one thing well.
4. It is ever true that he who does nothing for others,
does nothing for himself.
5. A free, patriotic, liberty-loving people are hard to conquer.
6. James Watt, the inventor of the steam engine, was born in Scotland.
7. He who hunts for flowers will find flowers, and he who loves weeds may find weeds.
8. He was in danger of losing his life.

LESSON 8

DIAGRAMING

Diagram these sentences :

1. Beautiful thoughts make a beautiful soul, and a beautiful soul makes a beautiful face.
2. Men are but children of a larger growth.
3. Laziness travels so slowly that poverty soon overtakes him.
4. Full oft wished he that the wind might rage.
5. The tree was tall and slender.
6. The tree was slender, but not tall.

The fifth sentence is simple, but the sixth is compound. In the sixth, the subject and the predicate must be repeated in the diagram because *not* modifies *was* only in connection with the complement *tall*, not when used with *slender*. In the analysis or the diagram, the sentence becomes "The tree was slender, but it was not tall."

7. A tree is judged by its fruit, and not by its leaves.
8. The wolf changes his coat, but not his disposition.
9. Greatness and goodness are not means, but ends.
10. Not royal birth, but sterling worth, must mark the man who leads.
11. The wind blew so hard that it became necessary to reef the sails.

LESSON 9

NOUNS

1. Proper nouns are not subdivided.
2. A proper noun sometimes becomes a common noun; as, "He is the Bismarck of this country."

In this sentence, *Bismarck* is used to represent a certain class of persons, and is a common noun. It still begins with a capital, however.

Another example is "We have no Websters and Clays in Congress to-day," meaning classes of orators, not persons named Webster and Clay.

3. Common nouns are divided into Collective, Abstract, and Class Nouns.
4. A Class Noun is a noun that may be applied to each individual of a group; as, chair, girl, village.

Since every common noun belongs to one of the three classes given, this classification is complete and logical, but other names have been given to a few common nouns.

5. A Verbal Noun is a noun derived from a verb; as, singing, running, etc., when used as nouns.

Verbal nouns are sometimes called Participial Nouns.

All verbal nouns are abstract nouns.

6. A Diminutive Noun is a noun that is derived from another noun, and denotes an object of the same kind, but smaller; as, brooklet, duckling, hillock.

All diminutive nouns are class nouns.

7. Personification is a figure of speech by which objects of the neuter gender are regarded as either masculine or feminine.

Thus, the *sun*, *time*, *death*, *war*, etc., are usually considered as masculine; and the *earth*, the *moon*, *virtue*, etc., are generally considered as feminine. Names of objects conveying the idea of strength, power, etc., are in the masculine when personified; and names of objects conveying the idea of beauty, weakness, etc., are feminine.

Sometimes, when the personification is strongly marked, the name of the personified object should begin with a capital; as, "Haste thee, Nymph, and bring with thee Mirth and youthful Jollity."

8. Write an abstract noun derived from —

vain	truthful	deep	cruel
pious	hero	grand	broad

9. Write a sentence containing —

1. A proper noun used as a common noun.
2. A verbal noun.
3. A noun masculine by personification.
4. A noun feminine by personification.
5. A personal pronoun referring to a collective noun.
6. A substantive phrase.
7. A complex phrase.

LESSON 10

NUMBER

1. Write the plural of each of these nouns, and give the rule if a rule is used.

topaz	cuckoo	ratio	negro
canto	oh	and	1/3
bill-of-fare	entry	man-of-war	shelf

2. Nouns taken from foreign languages without change generally retain their original plurals.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
formula	formulæ	alumna	alumnae
nebula	nebulæ	vertebra	vertebræ
automaton	automata	focus	foci
radius	radii	stimulus	stimuli
terminus	termini	amanuensis	amanuenses
curriculum	curricula	analysis	analyses
datum	data	axis	axes
erratum	errata	basis	bases
genus	genera	crisis	crises
gymnasium	gymnasia	ellipsis	ellipses
phenomenon	phenomena	hypothesis	hypotheses
stratum	strata	parenthesis	parentheses
alumnus	alumni	thesis	theses

3. Some nouns from foreign languages have both an English and a foreign plural.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>English Plural</i>	<i>Foreign Plural</i>
beau	beaus	beaux
cherub	cherubs	cherubim
formula	formulas	formulæ
focus	focuses	foci
gymnasium	gymnasiums	gymnasia
memorandum	memorandums	memoranda

<i>Singular</i>	<i>English Plural</i>	<i>Foreign Plural</i>
medium	mediums	media
radius	radiuses	radii
spectrum	spectrums	spectra
vortex	vortexes	vortices

4. Most proper nouns form their plurals regularly ; as, the Henrys, the Jeffersons, the Jenkinse.

5. The plural of a proper noun preceded by a title is formed by pluralizing the title or the name, but not both ; as, the Misses Brown, or the Miss Browns.

When two or more proper nouns are preceded by a common title, the title only is pluralized ; as, Senators Long and Clay ; Drs. Scott and Smith.

When the title is *Mrs.*, the name should be pluralized ; as, the Mrs. Blanks.

Usually when a definite number is mentioned the name should be pluralized ; as the three Miss Henrys.

6. Compounds in *ful* form the plural by adding *s* ; as, cupfuls, wagonfuls.

What is the difference between " three spoonfuls of vinegar " and " three spoons full of vinegar " ?

7. Some nouns, though always plural in form, are either singular or plural according to the meaning to be conveyed. Such are *odds*, *means*, *amends*, and some others.

1. He was industrious, and by this means he succeeded.
2. He was industrious and careful, and by these means he succeeded.

8. Write the plural of each of these words :

Mr. Arnold	Gen. Black	Dr. Johnson
money	German	man-servant

9. Notice the capitals in these sentences :

1. I met the captain on the street.
2. Have you heard that Captain Fulton is here?

In the second sentence, *Captain* is part of the name, and is a proper noun.

10. Use each of these words in two sentences : first, as a common noun ; second, as a proper noun.

governor	uncle	king	doctor
revolution	college	park	fort

LESSON 11

NOUNS TO BE CLASSIFIED

Classify the nouns in these sentences (giving the subclass of each common noun), and name the gender and number of each :

1. The analysis of this sentence is correct.
2. Several different analyses of that problem were given.
3. A rivulet is a small stream, and a gosling is a small goose.
4. Running and skating are good kinds of exercise.
5. The army and the navy are both larger than they were some years ago.
6. The termini of this railroad are far apart.
7. He is an alumnus of Yale, his two brothers are alumni of Harvard, and his two sisters are alumnæ of Vassar.
8. Andrew Jackson was called Old Hickory.
9. That broker is called a Napoleon of finance.
10. Washington was a general of the army.
11. There is a monument to General Washington in the city.
12. Franklin Square is a large square.
13. Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest.

14. A chieftain to the Highlands bound,
Cried " Boatman, do not tarry."
15. I received a nice present from Aunt Laura, who lives
in the same house with another aunt of mine.
16. Give Superintendent Harvey these data and this
memorandum.

LESSON 12

NOMINATIVE CASE

1. A noun or pronoun in the nominative case is used —

1. As the subject.
2. As attribute complement.
3. In apposition with another nominative.
4. Independently.

2. A noun used independently may be in the nominative case :

1. By direct address.
2. By pleonasm.
3. By exclamation.
4. By subscription.
5. Absolute.

3. A noun used as the name of the person or thing addressed is in the nominative by Direct Address ; as,

1. Poet, take this lesson to thy heart.
2. Give me of thy bark, birch tree.

This construction is sometimes called the Vocative Case.

4. A noun or pronoun used to call special attention to the object we speak about, but not used as the subject, is in the nominative by Pleonasm ; as,

The Pilgrim Fathers, where are they?

Notice that the subject is *they*, and that *Pilgrim Fathers* is used to call special attention to the object of thought. Also, notice how much more effective the sentence is than if it read "Where are the Pilgrim Fathers?"

5. In these sentences, select the nouns that are in the nominative by pleonasm:

1. He, what did he say?
2. Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.
3. Then conquer we must,
When our cause it is just.

This case is so called because the word *pleonasm* means fullness; and you will notice that in its use there seems to be at least one more word than necessary.

6. A noun used by way of exclamation to intensify the thought is in the nominative by Exclamation; as,

Ah, poor man! How I pity him!

Sometimes it is difficult to decide whether a noun is nominative by exclamation or by direct address. In "Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!" was Byron addressing the ocean, or did he use the term by way of exclamation?

7. A noun used to name the author or source of a sentence or quotation is in the nominative by Subscription; as,

1. What is so rare as a day in June! — *Lowell*.
2. The Lord is my shepherd. — *Bible*.

The word *subscription* means "written under," and the name of the author is usually placed below or after the selection.

8. A noun or pronoun placed before a participle, and independent of the remainder of the sentence, is in the Nominative Absolute; as,

1. The rain having ceased, a rainbow appeared.
2. The weather being very cold, we dressed in furs.

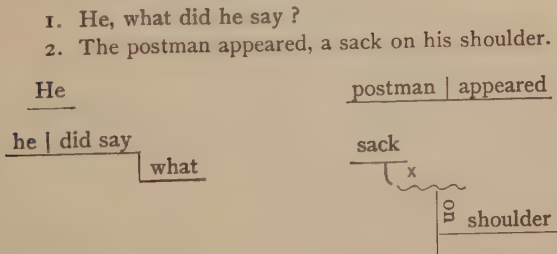
Remember that the nominative absolute is not the subject of the sentence. In "We, being tired, rested," *we* is not in the nominative absolute because it is the subject of *rested*. In "Our horses being tired, we rested," *horses* is in the nominative absolute, and *we* is the subject of *rested*.

The participle may be understood; as, "The postman appeared, a sack on his shoulder." *Being* is understood after *sack*.

9. Each of these sentences contains a noun or pronoun used independently. Select each one, and tell whether it is nominative by direct address, by exclamation, by pleonasm, by subscription, or absolutely:

1. The boy, oh, where was he!
2. Evening was gradually advancing. — *Irving*.
3. A liar, who believes a liar?
4. Cæsar having crossed the Rubicon, Rome was plunged into civil war.
5. Come on, brave soldiers, do not fear.
6. Mr. President: I rise to second the motion.
7. What happiness! We are going to Europe.

10. Notice these diagrams:



"Sack (being) on his shoulder" is a substantive noun phrase used independently.

11. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 9.

LESSON 13

CASE: REVIEW

1. Write a sentence containing:

1. A noun, nominative by direct address.
2. A noun, nominative by exclamation.
3. A noun, nominative by pleonasm.
4. A noun in the nominative absolute.
5. A noun, nominative by subscription.
6. A pronoun, nominative by pleonasm.
7. A pronoun in the nominative absolute.
8. A noun clause in apposition with the subject.
9. A noun clause in apposition with the attribute complement.

2. Analyze these sentences:

1. The greatest achievement was at first, and for a time, a dream.
2. Thoughts of doubt and fear always lead to failure.
3. Spring is the season when all nature seems glad.
4. A man he was, to all the country dear.

LESSON 14

POSSESSIVE CASE

1. In forming the possessive, the additional *s* is sometimes omitted when its use would cause several successive sounds of *s*; as, "for conscience' sake"; "Moses' staff."

Notice that *conscience* ends with an *s*-sound, and that *sake* begins with *s*. Now, if we add another *s*, we shall have three *s*-sounds in succession.

The additional *s* is not omitted so often now as it was some years ago. We now write "John Adams's administration," but years ago it was often written "John Adams' administration."

This additional *s* must not be omitted in pronouncing the word. *Adams's* is pronounced as if spelled *Adamses* and *Charles's* is pronounced *Charleses*.

2. Notice the following :

"Brown and Smith's farm" means that the farm is owned by both of them jointly, and the phrase "Brown and Smith's" is in the possessive case although *Brown* does not have the sign of possession. "Brown's farm and Smith's" means that each one owns a farm. Notice that in this sentence *farm* is in the singular, although there are two farms. *Farm* is understood after *Smith's*. "Brown's and Smith's farms" means that each one owns more than one farm, *farms* being understood after *Brown's*.

The same is true in the use of the article. "The white and black dog" (using only one article) means one dog, spotted (joint colors), but "the white and the black dog" (repeating the article) means two dogs, one of each color (separate colors). Notice that in the last quotation *dog* is singular although there are two dogs. *Dog* is understood after *white*, making the complete expression "the white dog and the black dog." "The white and black dogs" means that there are two or more spotted dogs, but "the white and the black dogs" means that there are two or more dogs of each color.

3. The following sentences are grammatically correct :

1. Parker and Watson's store is large.
2. Parker's store and Watson's are large.
3. Parker and Watson's stores are large.
4. Parker's and Watson's stores are large.

4. Give the meaning of each sentence in paragraph 3.

5. A noun or pronoun placed before a participle having the construction of a noun should be in the possessive case ; as,

1. My admitting the fact will not affect the argument.
2. Your being able to speak German aided you.

Being is the simple subject of *aided*.

3. We had not heard of his going to South America.

6. Sometimes the nominative or the objective may precede a participle, but then the participle does not have the construction of a noun.

1. I am opposed to the gentleman's speaking again.

Here it is the speaking I am opposed to, and *speaking* is the object of *to*.

2. I am opposed to the gentleman speaking again.

Here I am opposed to the gentleman — the particular gentleman that is speaking again. *Gentleman* is the object of *to*, and *speaking* has the construction of an adjective, modifying *gentleman*.

7. Explain the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair :

1. { Lady Macbeth's walking in her sleep is a scene full of tragic horror.
Lady Macbeth walking in her sleep is a sight full of tragic horror.
2. { I saw him running.
I saw his running.
3. { His being a good penman secured the situation.
He, being a good penman, secured the situation.

8. Select the correct word from each parenthesis :

1. Do you believe in (girls, girls') studying manual training?
2. I had not thought of (it, its) being Christmas.
3. They had not thought of (my, me) coming so soon.

9. Change these phrases to the form of the possessive case :

1. The decision of the courts = the courts' decisions.
2. The trial of Mary, Queen of Scots.
3. The store of Davis & Co.
4. At the office of Marshall, the lawyer.
5. The expulsion of Tarquin the Proud.

LESSON 15

POSSESSIVE CASE — Continued

1. Change these phrases to the form of the possessive case :

1. The dictionary of Webster and that of Worcester.
2. The farm of Grant or Lee.
3. The farm of Grant and Lee.
4. The farm of Grant and that of Lee.
5. The farms of Grant and Lee.
6. The farms of Grant and those of Lee.
7. The shop of somebody else.
8. The decree of the Emperor of China.
9. The fleece of that sheep.
10. The cross of the *t*.
11. The sword of the captain of the ship.
12. The home of my brother-in-law.
13. The homes of my brothers-in-law.

2. Write a sentence containing —

1. Two or more nouns denoting joint ownership.
2. Two or more nouns denoting separate ownership.
3. A noun in the possessive by apposition.
4. The possessive plural of "King of England."
5. The possessive singular of "nobody else."
6. The progressive plural of "lieutenant governor."

LESSON 16

OBJECTIVE CASE

1. A noun or pronoun in the objective case is used —

1. As the object of a verb.
2. As the object of a preposition.
3. In apposition with another objective.
4. Without a governing word.

5. As the subject of an infinitive.
6. As the objective attribute.
7. As the objective complement.

All of these except the fourth, the sixth, and the seventh were discussed in Grade Seven.

2. Nouns denoting weight, measure, value, distance, time, etc., are in the objective case without a governing word ; as,

The mountain is three miles high.

Three miles modifies *high*, telling how high. *Miles* is in the objective case without a governing word, denoting measure or distance.

Other examples of this case are —

1. That man weighs two hundred *pounds*.

Pounds is not the object of *weighs*.

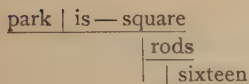
2. He waited an *hour*.
3. Corn has grown ten *inches* this *month*.
4. Wheat is worth a *dollar* a *bushel*.

3. Each of these sentences contains one or two nouns in the objective case without a governing word. Select these nouns, and tell why each is in the objective case.

1. He ran two miles last Monday.
2. This cloak cost forty dollars.
3. These shoes are two sizes too large.
4. Adams and Jefferson both died July 4, 1826.
5. Some land will produce eighty bushels of corn an acre.
6. In some places the Atlantic Ocean is a mile deep.
7. We saluted the American flag every morning.
8. We should have started the week before.
9. We eat three times a day.
10. A senator of the United States must be thirty years old.

4. Notice this diagram:

The park is sixteen rods square.



A noun in the objective case without a governing word is diagramed as if it were the object of a preposition. As no preposition is understood, no cross is used.

5. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 3.

LESSON 17

OBJECTIVE CASE — Continued

1. Notice these sentences :

1. He wants to be a soldier.

“To be a soldier” is the object of *wants*, and *soldier* is the complement of *to be*. *Soldier* means the same person as *he*, and is in the nominative (attribute complement) to agree with *he*. *He* is the subject of the proposition and also the subject of *to be*.

2. He wants his friend to be a soldier.

In this sentence the object of *wants* is “his friend to be a soldier.” *Soldier* is still the complement of *to be*, but it means the same person as *friend*. *Friend* is in the objective case, subject of the infinitive *to be*, and *soldier* is in the objective case to agree with *friend*. Since it agrees with an objective subject, it may be called an Objective Attribute.

Bear in mind —

- a. There can be no objective attribute unless there is an objective subject.
- b. The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case unless it is also the subject of the proposition.

2. When an intransitive infinitive has an objective subject, it may have an objective attribute.

LESSON 18

CASE — Continued

I. Intransitive verbs and their participles, and transitive verbs in the passive voice, have the same case after them as before them when both words refer to the same person or thing.

This rule includes nouns and pronouns used as attribute complement and objective attribute, and also some constructions not usually classed with these ; as,

1. Alexander had a horse named Bucephalus.

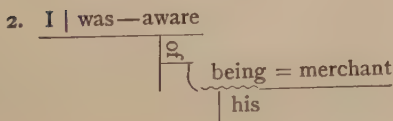
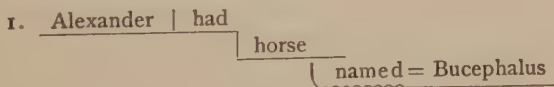
Named is a passive participle of a transitive verb, and *Bucephalus* is in the objective case to agree with *horse*, the object of *had*. Notice that *horse* and *Bucephalus* refer to the same animal.

2. A sea called Galilee is found in Palestine.

Galilee is in the nominative case to agree with *sea*.

There is a peculiar exception to the rule given in paragraph 1. A participle with the construction of a noun may have the possessive case before it and the nominative case after it, although the two words refer to the same person or thing; as, "I was not aware of his being a merchant." *His*, in the possessive case before the intransitive participle *being*, and *merchant* after the participle refer to the same person, but *merchant* is in the nominative case.

2. Notice these diagrams:



3. Diagram these sentences, and name the case of each noun and pronoun :

1. A sea called Galilee is found in Palestine.
2. I had not heard of your being a judge.
3. Pocahontas was married to an Englishman named John Rolfe.
4. Its being she should cause no change in our plans.
5. His being an officer protected him.
6. He, having been elected senator, went to Washington.
7. He having been elected senator, his family moved to Washington.
8. Alexander had a horse that was named Bucephalus.
9. We went to see the man recently elected sheriff.
10. Morocco is inhabited by people called Moors.
11. Morocco is inhabited by people who are called Moors.

LESSON 19

CASE — Continued

1. Appositives, and nouns and pronouns agreeing in case according to the rule in paragraph 1 of the preceding lesson, do not always agree in gender, person, and number ; as,

1. It is she.
2. I am he.
3. He was eyes to the blind.
4. The Lord will be our shield.
5. The Greeks, a synonym for brave men, gained a great victory over the Persians.

2. Write a sentence having an objective subject of an infinitive, and —

1. No objective attribute.
2. An objective attribute.
3. An object of the infinitive.

3. Write a sentence having a noun in the objective case without a governing word, denoting —

1. Measure. 2. Distance. 3. Time.

4. Write a sentence containing two substantives agreeing in case but differing in —

1. Gender. 2. Person. 3. Number.

5. Write a sentence having a noun —

1. In the nominative after a passive verb or participle.
2. In the objective after a passive verb or participle.
3. In the objective after an intransitive infinitive.
4. In the nominative absolute.

LESSON 20

OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

1. Sometimes verbs meaning to make, choose, create, elect, regard, etc., are followed by two objectives referring to the same person or thing; as,

1. They made her queen.
2. The players chose him umpire.
3. The legislature elected Mr. Elliott speaker.
4. Captain Smith named the settlement Jamestown.
5. His classmates considered him the leader.

In each of these sentences the second objective belongs to the first, and also to the verb. In the first, for instance, *queen* belongs to *her*; it explains *her*, but it also belongs to *made*; they *made queen* (queened) her. In the second, *umpire* belongs to *him*; it explains *him*, but it also completes the meaning of the verb; they did not simply choose him, but they *chose umpire* him. Since this objective belongs to the object and also completes the verb, it is called the Objective Complement. In the sentences given above, the objective complements are *queen*, *umpire*, *speaker*, *Jamestown*, and *leader*.

2. The Objective Complement completes the predicate and belongs to the object.

These two things should be kept in mind :

1. There can be no objective complement unless there is an object.
2. The object is not the object of the verb alone, but of the verb and the objective complement taken together.

The objective complement may be an adjective ; as, "He made the stick straight." *Straight*, an adjective, is the objective complement, and *stick* is the object of *made straight*. "He made straight (straightened) the stick."

3. Name the objective complement in each of these sentences :

1. Nature made us men.
2. Men made us citizens.
3. He ate himself sick.
4. They called me names.
5. She laughed herself hoarse.

4. Notice these diagrams :

1. The medicine made the child sick.
2. The convention elected Mr. Harris chairman.

medicine | made / sick —
child

convention | elected / chairman =
Mr. Harris

The verb and the objective complement are separated in the diagram because they are not parsed together, and the dividing line leans toward the object because the complement belongs to the object. Notice the dash after the adjective, and the sign of equality between the two nouns meaning the same person.

5. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 3.

6. Diagram these sentences :

1. Think nought a trifle, though it small appears.
2. We make our fortunes, and we call them fate.
3. Vanity makes the whole world false.
4. We thought him hale and strong.
5. Ambition has made many men hypocrites.
6. The Romans confessed themselves the pupils of the Greeks.
7. Macaulay calls the liberty of discussion the chief safeguard of all other liberties.
8. By reading, a man makes himself contemporary with past ages.
9. Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire called conscience. — *Washington*.

7. When a sentence with an objective complement is made passive, both objectives (if substantives) become nominative, one becoming the subject, and the other the attribute complement; as,

1. They selected him teacher.
2. He was selected teacher.

In the second, *teacher* is the attribute complement after the verb in the passive voice. This is in accordance with the rule in paragraph 1, lesson 18.

LESSON 21

CASE : SO-CALLED INDIRECT OBJECT

1. Notice these sentences :

1. { The teacher gave a book to me.
 { The teacher gave me a book.
2. { She told a story to the boy.
 { She told the boy a story.
3. { The tailor made a coat for him.
 { The tailor made him a coat.

Notice that —

1. The two sentences of each pair mean the same.
2. There are two objectives in each sentence, one denoting a person and the other denoting a thing.
3. In the first sentence of each pair the objective denoting the thing comes first, and a preposition is used.
4. In the second sentence of each pair the objective denoting the person comes first, and no preposition is used.

In the last sentence of each pair many authors call *me*, *boy*, and *him* the Indirect Object of the verb, but they are plainly objects of prepositions understood. If they are indirect objects of the verb in the last sentence of each pair, they are indirect objects in the first sentence of each pair because the verb holds the same relation to the word in both sentences. The idiom of our language requires that in such sentences the preposition should not be expressed when the objective denoting the person comes first.

2. Select the nouns and pronouns used in these sentences as the so-called indirect object, and tell what preposition should be supplied before each one in parsing :

1. You cannot teach an old dog new tricks.
2. He left them all his property.
3. She wrote her mother a letter.
4. He made the man a pair of shoes.
5. Give me liberty, or give me death.
6. She made herself a dress.
7. The contractor paid the men their wages.

3. In changing such sentences to the passive form, sometimes either objective may be used as the subject; as,

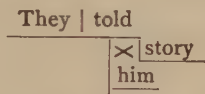
They told him a story.

Passive { 1. A story was told to him by them.
2. He was told a story by them.

The first method (making the object of the verb the subject) is the better, but the second (making the object of the preposition the subject) has the sanction of good authority. In the second passive sentence *story* may be parsed as the object of the passive verb.

4. Notice this diagram:

They told him a story.



5. Diagram the sentences in paragraph 2.

6. Of the sentences in paragraph 2, make each object in the first, second, third, and seventh the subject of a passive sentence.

LESSON 22

CASE — Continued

1. Give the reason for the case of each noun and pronoun in these sentences :

1. They offered Cæsar the crown three times.
2. I refer to Milton, him who wrote "Paradise Lost."
3. Harold, the last Saxon king, was conquered by William, Duke of Normandy.
4. Mr. Harmon was chosen chairman of the meeting.
5. Hard times made him a pauper.
6. He departed a lieutenant, but he came back a captain.

Lieutenant and *captain* are attribute complements.

7. He departed as a lieutenant. (*As* is introductory.)



8. I admire him as a citizen, but I censure him as an officer.
9. They told him that congress had adjourned.

Make this sentence passive in two ways ; that is, use each object as the subject.

2. Diagram the sentences in the preceding paragraph.

LESSON 23

CASE — Continued

1. Sometimes verbs of asking, teaching, etc., are followed by two objectives, one denoting a person, the other a thing ; as,

1. He taught me grammar.
2. She asked him a question.

These sentences are different from those studied in lesson 21 because either objective may be made the object of the verb: He taught me; he taught grammar. She asked him; she asked a question. However, most grammarians say that *grammar* and *question* are the objects of the verbs, and *me* and *him* are indirect objects, or objects of prepositions understood ; as "He taught (to) me grammar." This method makes the analysis of such sentences very simple.

When the sentence is changed to the passive form, either objective may become the subject ; as,

1. I was taught grammar.
2. Grammar was taught to me.

In the first, *grammar* is in the objective case, object of the passive verb *was taught*. Some authors call this the Retained Object.

2. A Cognate Object is an object having a meaning related to that of the verb ; as,

1. He dreamed a dream.
2. He ran a race.

Although these verbs are usually intransitive, they are transitive in these sentences.

Other sentences with cognate objects are,

1. Let me die the death of the righteous.
2. They danced a reel.
3. Fight the good fight.

Sometimes a verb may take both a direct object and a cognate object.

1. He struck the horse. (Direct object.)
2. He struck a blow. (Cognate object.)
3. He struck the horse a blow. (Direct and cognate.)

3. When pronouns follow interjections, those of the first person are usually in the objective case; as, "Alas! Poor me!"

Pronouns of the second or the third person following interjections are in the nominative case.

4. Give the reason for the case of each noun and pronoun in these sentences:

1. Paul fought a good fight.
2. They were taught algebra.
3. Yesterday he ran a race, and to-day he ran a hack.
4. Ah! Wretched me! Where shall I go?
5. The Swiss struck a blow for liberty.
6. The policeman struck him a blow in the face.
7. They gave the boy a prize.
8. A prize was given to the boy.
9. The boy was given a prize.
10. But who can tell us who we are?
11. Truth crushed to earth shall rise again;
The eternal years of God are hers;
But error, wounded, writhes in pain,
And dies among his worshipers.

2. In the following sentences the word *governor* is used in all the constructions of a noun. Study each sentence carefully.

1. Nominative :

- a.* Subject of the sentence : The governor is present.
- b.* Attribute complement : Mr. Brown is governor.
- c.* Apposition : Mr. Brown, the governor, lives in the capital.
- d.* Direct address : Governor, did you sign the bill?
- e.* Exclamation : O noble governor ! He granted my request.
- f.* Pleonasm : The governor, what did he say?
- g.* Absolute : The governor having vetoed the bill it failed to become a law.
- h.* By subscription (signed to a letter or message).

2. Possessive :

- a.* Owner : The governor's office is in the capitol.
- b.* Apposition : Mr. Brown, the governor's, message was well received.

3. Objective :

- a.* Object of verb : The people honor the governor.
- b.* Object of preposition : I was introduced to the governor.
- c.* Apposition : We met Mr. Brown, the governor.
- d.* Without a governing word : A senator is worth a governor.
- e.* Subject of infinitive : I believe the governor to be honest.
- f.* Objective attribute : We want Mr. Brown to be governor.
- g.* Objective complement : The voters elected Mr. Brown governor.

LESSON 25

DRILL ON CASE

1. Select some noun (*farmer*, for instance), and use it in seventeen sentences, one for each noun construction.
2. Try to use a pronoun in at least ten of the noun constructions given in the preceding lesson.

LESSON 26

ESSAY: "THE NOUN"

Write an essay on "The Noun," using the outline in lesson 24.

LESSON 27

DIAGRAMING AND PARSING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics:

1. He was the *Homer* of English literature.
2. Ten spears he swept within his grasp.
3. There was *timber* to fell, there were fences to build, and there were fields to plow.
4. Franklin, an American statesman, was born in Boston, a city of Massachusetts.
5. Every *why* hath a *wherefore*.
6. Her air, her manners, all who saw admired.
7. Many people regard winter as a *season* of enjoyment.
8. They built a strong fort.
9. They built the *fort* strong.
10. They sent him as a *messenger*.
11. He was sent as a *messenger*.
12. Grand, gloomy, and peculiar, he sat upon the throne a sceptered *hermit*.
13. Nathan Hale died a *martyr* to liberty.
14. This was Cæsar's maxim, the greatest soldier of his day. (*Soldier* is in the possessive case.)

LESSON 28

ANALYSIS AND DIAGRAMING

1. Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. Thus conscience doth make cowards of us *all*.
2. *Me* he delights to spare.
3. *Cæsar* having crossed the Rubicon, Pompey prepared for battle.
4. All age and youth must learn the truth
That nothing pays *that's* wrong.
5. Every man's life is a fairy tale *written* by God's own fingers.
6. *Ye* everlasting *peaks* ! I am with you again.
7. " Might makes right " is not *true*.
8. The saying, " Seeing is believing," occurred to me.
9. He is proud that he is a soldier.
10. He is proud to be a *soldier*.
11. God has made America the school *house* of the world.

2. Analyze the third, fourth, fifth, eighth, ninth, and eleventh of the sentences in paragraph 1.

LESSON 29

PARSING

1. Parse the verbs (including infinitives and participles) in these sentences :

1. O mighty Cæsar, dost thou lie so low?
2. Words without thoughts never to heaven go.
3. Very few have labored so earnestly.
4. The tree by the gate was planted by a great statesman.
5. He is fond of reading poetry.
6. It is a grand thing to make something beautiful.

7. Rocked in the cradle of the deep,
I lay me down in peace to sleep.
8. To fight or to flee seemed equally difficult.
9. The wonder grew that one small head could carry all
he knew.
10. The Moslem crescent, after reigning in Spain for
eight centuries, was no longer seen on her borders.
11. It is the hard fate of Montezuma to be wholly indebted
for his portraiture to the pencil of his enemies.

2. Of the above, diagram sentences 2, 5, 7, 9, 10, and
11.

LESSON 30

RELATIVE PRONOUNS: SIMPLE, COMPOUND

1. *Who*, *which*, and *that*, when used as relative pronouns, are called Simple Relatives.

2. *As* is sometimes used as a relative pronoun after *such*, *many*, and *same*; as,

1. We are such stuff as (which) dreams are made of.
2. My books are the same as yours (are).
3. I have the same books that you had yesterday.
4. As many as were called were chosen.

The second *as* is a relative pronoun, subject of *were called*.

3. *But*, when equivalent to *that not* or *who not*, is used as a negative relative pronoun; as,

1. Where breathes the foe but falls (that does not fall)
before us?
2. There is not a man here but knows it.

4. Give the construction of the pronouns *as* and *but* in these sentences:

1. Such as I have give I unto thee.
2. Tears, such as angels weep, burst forth.

3. There is not a child but has heard it.
4. There is not a wife in the west country
But has heard of the well of St. Keyne.
5. I love such as love me.

5. Diagram the sentences in the preceding paragraph.

6. The antecedent of a relative is sometimes understood ; as, "Who steals my purse steals trash."

7. A Compound Relative Pronoun is formed by adding *ever* or *soever* to the relatives *who*, *which*, and *what*.

8. The compound relatives *whoever* and *whosoever* are declined as follows :

<i>Singular</i>	{	NOMINATIVE :	whoever	whosoever
		POSSESSIVE :	whosever	whosesoever
		OBJECTIVE :	whomever	whomsoever

The plural is the same as the singular.

The other compound relatives are not declined.

The use of the possessive of the compound relatives is rare.

9. When a compound relative is used, the antecedent should not be expressed.

"He whoever wants it may have it" is incorrect because the antecedent *he* is used with a compound relative. The sentence should read "Whoever wants it may have it," or "He who wants it may have it."

From what has just been said you will learn that a compound relative fills two case offices — its own and that of the understood antecedent. In "Whoever comes will be welcome," *whoever* is the subject of *comes* and *will be*. Supplying the antecedent, the sentence becomes "The one who comes will be welcome."

Sometimes both offices are objective ; as, "Give it to whomever you may meet." *Whomever* is the object of *to* and of *may meet*.

Sometimes one case office is nominative and one objective ; as, "Give it to whoever wants it." *Whoever* is the object of *to* and the subject of *wants*. It may seem that the form should be *whomever* because it is the object of *to*, but we must remember that a relative, simple or compound, is always found in the dependent clause of a complex sentence, and it is the case office in the dependent clause that controls the form of the compound relative. The form is the nominative *whoever* because it is the subject of *wants* in the dependent clause. Supplying the antecedent, the sentence becomes "Give it to the one who wants it."

10. Select the proper word in each blank, and give the reason for your choice :

1. We shall buy from (whoever, whomever) sells cheapest.
2. Select (whosoever, whomsoever) you wish.
3. The prize is for (whoever, whomever) wins it.
4. (Whoever, whomever) they elect will serve.
5. (Whoever, whomever) is elected they will congratulate.
6. The boy worked for (whoever, whomever) would employ him.
7. The boy worked for (whoever, whomever) he could induce to employ him.

LESSON 31

DOUBLE RELATIVE: ANALYSIS, DIAGRAMING

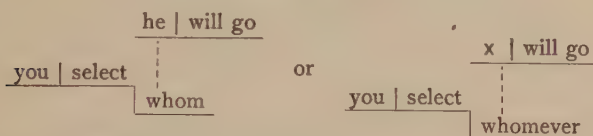
1. *What*, when a relative, is equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*, or *the things which*, and for this reason it is called a Double Relative.

The use of *what* is similar to that of the compound relatives ; it performs the offices of a relative and its antecedent. In "He read what I wrote," *what* is the object of *read*, and also of *wrote*. In analyzing we change to "He read that which I wrote." In "Do what is right," *what* is the object of *do* and the subject of *is*. In analyzing we change to "Do that which is right." *That* is an adjective pronoun, and *which* is a relative pronoun.

2. Notice these analyses and diagrams:

1. Whomever you select will go. (Whomever = he whom.)

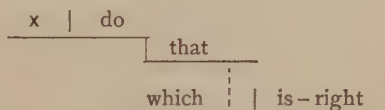
This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which "he whom you select" is the complete subject, *he* is the simple subject, modified by "whom you select," a dependent, adjective clause, of which *you* is the subject, *select* is the predicate, and *whom* is the object, also the connective. *Will go* is the predicate.



The first diagram is to be preferred.

2. Do what is right. (What = that which.)

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which *you* understood is the subject, and the remainder of the sentence is the complete predicate. *Do* is the simple predicate, *that* is the object, modified by "which is right," a dependent, adjective clause, of which *which* is the subject, also the connective, *is right* is the complete predicate, *is* is the simple predicate, *right*, an adjective modifying the subject, is the attribute complement.



3. In parsing a compound relative or a double relative, give the words to which it is equivalent, and then parse each word.

4. Analyze and diagram these sentences, and parse the compound relatives and the double relatives:

1. What is feared may sometimes be avoided.
2. Whatever has a beginning has an end.
3. Whoever would search for pearls must dive deep.

4. Recollect every day what has been seen, heard, and read.
 5. That is what I expected.
 6. Whomsoever we meet we shall greet.
5. Write a sentence containing —
1. What, as a double relative.
 2. Whatever, as a compound relative.
 3. Whoever, as a compound relative.
 4. Whomever, as a compound relative.

LESSON 32

RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES

1. Relative Clauses are divided into two classes.

Sometimes the clause limits or restricts the antecedent of the relative to some particular person or thing; as, "The lion that we saw at the circus came from Africa." Here the relative clause restricts the meaning of *lion* to one particular lion — the one we saw at the circus.

Sometimes a relative clause is not restrictive, but is added merely to give additional information; as, "The lion, which is king of beasts, is found in Africa." Here the meaning is not some particular lion, but any or all lions. The relative clause gives additional information. The first intention was to say that the lion is found in Africa, but the speaker added, almost by way of parenthesis, that the lion is king of beasts. Such relative clauses are not restrictive. They are introduced by *who* or *which*, and are set off by commas.

2. A restrictive clause is a clause that restricts the word it modifies.

That should be used in preference to *who* or *which* in a restrictive clause.

3. Of the following sentences, those having odd numbers are restrictive, and those with even numbers are non-restrictive:

1. He is able to succor them that are tempted.
2. This gentleman, who is very old, was a soldier for many years.
3. The diamond that the countess wore cost fifty thousand dollars.
4. The diamond, which is pure charcoal, is a brilliant gem.
5. I saw the merchant that indorsed my check.
6. I saw the merchant, who indorsed my check.
7. My uncle that lives in Boston came to see me.
8. My uncle, who lives in Boston, came to see me.

Explain the difference in meaning between the last two sentences.
Notice the punctuation of the preceding sentences.

4. *That* should be used in preference to *who* or *which*—

1. After the interrogative *who*; as, "Who that heard it will believe it?"
2. After the indefinite pronoun *it*; as, "It was you that did it."
3. When there is doubt as to whether *who* or *which* should be used; as, "The little babe that lies in the cradle."
4. In a restrictive clause.

5. From each parenthesis select the correct word, and give the reason for your choice:

1. It was my father (who, that) said so.
2. Who (who, that) has common sense can believe it?
3. He was the first (who, that) came.

First may be considered a superlative.

4. This is the very knife (which, that) I lost.
5. Was it you or the wind (who, that) shut the door?
6. This is the same engine (which, that) went by yesterday.
7. He was the drollest fellow (whom, that) I ever saw.
8. He sold his bay horse, (which, that) had been given to him. (Notice the comma after *horse*.)
9. He sold the bay horse (which, that) had been given to him.

LESSON 33

PRONOUNS: INTERROGATIVE, ADJECTIVE POSSESSIVE

1. Notice these sentences :

1. What shall I do ?
2. The boy asked "What shall I do ?"
3. The boy asked what he should do.

In the first sentence, there is a direct question, and *what* is an interrogative pronoun. In the second, the question is quoted directly, and *what* is still an interrogative pronoun. In the third, the question is quoted indirectly, but still *what* is an interrogative pronoun. The clause is the object of *asked* in each sentence, and is a noun clause ; therefore, *what* cannot be a relative pronoun because a relative is always in an adjective clause.

2. In these sentences *who*, *which*, and *what* are interrogative pronouns :

1. I know who gained the victory.
2. Who first saw America has not yet been decided.
3. The teacher asked which I preferred.
4. You know what he wanted.

3. Adjective Pronouns are divided into Demonstrative Pronouns and Indefinite Pronouns.

4. A Demonstrative Pronoun is a pronoun that points out in a definite manner the object to which it relates ; as, "This is right, that is wrong."

The demonstrative pronouns are *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *the former*, and *the latter*.

5. An Indefinite Pronoun is a pronoun that points out in an indefinite manner the object to which it relates ; as, "Few will agree to this."

All the adjective pronouns, except the demonstratives, are indefinites.

Each, either, and neither are sometimes called Distributives.

Each other is used when the reference is to two, and *one another* is used when the reference is to more than two; as,

1. They (two) love each other.
2. The pupils soon get acquainted with one another.

The words used as adjective pronouns are such only when the word they modify is not expressed. When they modify words that are expressed, they are definitive adjectives.

Only definitive adjectives become adjective pronouns. When a descriptive adjective is used without a noun, it should be parsed as a noun, or the noun should be supplied. In "The sick and the wounded were cared for," *sick* and *wounded* should be parsed as nouns, or as adjectives modifying *persons* or some other similar word understood.

Adjective pronouns are sometimes called Pronominal Adjectives.

6. In declining the personal pronouns two forms for the possessive are usually given; as, *my, mine; our, ours; her, hers; etc.*

The forms *mine, ours, hers, etc.*, are used when the noun representing the thing possessed is understood; as, "Mine is old, yours is new." These forms are sometimes called Possessive Pronouns.

7. A Possessive Pronoun is one used to represent both the possessor and the thing possessed.

Suppose in "Mine is old" we are talking about a hat; then "Mine is old" means "My hat is old," and *mine* takes the place of both words, *My* and *hat*. If we supply the understood word, *hat* is the subject, and *my* is a personal pronoun in the possessive case. Many authors use this method, and do not use the term possessive pronoun at all. However, we cannot always supply an understood noun. If we change "a friend of mine" to "a friend of my friends," we have changed the meaning.

Other authors, preferring the term possessive pronoun, do not supply the understood word. They would parse *mine* in "a friend

of mine" as the object of the preposition *of*. In "Mine is new" they would parse *mine* in the nominative case, subject of *is*. In following this method we should remember that a possessive pronoun is never in the possessive case.

Sometimes a noun may perform the same office as these possessive pronouns. In "that coat of father's," *father's* has the sign of possession, but it is in the objective case, object of the preposition.

8. Parse the words in italics :

1. *Ours* is a great country.
2. An old schoolmate of *mother's* is visiting us.
3. Mary spent her money, but Lucy saved *hers*.
4. The hills and valleys are *his*.

His is not usually classed as a possessive pronoun because it does not have a separate form for that use, but it seems to be one as well as *hers* or *yours*. If *hers* is a possessive pronoun in "The prize is hers," surely *his* is one in the given sentence, and is in the nominative case, attribute complement.

LESSON 34

PRONOUNS: AGREEMENT WITH ANTECEDENT

1. When a pronoun has two or more antecedents taken together, differing in person, the pronoun takes the form of the second person in preference to that of the third, and the form of the first person in preference to that of either the second or the third ; as,

1. Have you and your sisters learned *your* lessons?
2. He and I have done *our* work.

2. In these sentences the pronouns agree with their antecedents :

1. Each member of the class must have his own book.
2. Many a man looks back on the days of his youth with regret.

3. The earth is my mother, and I will recline upon her bosom.
4. Every governor and every magistrate does as he thinks best.

You learned in Grade Seven that although the verb *does* in this sentence has two singular subjects connected by *and*, it is singular because these subjects are preceded by *every*. For the same reason *he* is singular to agree with its antecedent "every governor and every magistrate." When any subject requiring a singular verb is used as an antecedent, the pronoun referring to it must be singular.

5. Each one of us has his faults.
6. Each one of the girls has her faults.
7. He is one of the best men that live in the city.
8. Every boy and girl must depend on himself or herself.

This has the sanction of some good authority, but it is not satisfactory. Some prefer "Every boy and girl must depend on himself," but this is not satisfactory, either. It would be better to say "Every pupil (or person) must depend on himself."

3. Select the correct word, and give reason for your choice :

1. John and I have (our, their) lessons.
2. The mother, as well as the father, must do (his, her) part.
3. Poverty and wealth has each (its, their) own temptations.
4. The men, not the commander, lost (his, their) (life, lives).
5. The commander, not the men, lost (his, their) (life, lives).
6. Every herb, every flower, and every animal shows the wisdom of Him who made (it, them).
7. If any one wishes to join the church, let (him, them), come forward.
8. Neither of us is willing to give up (his, our) claim.

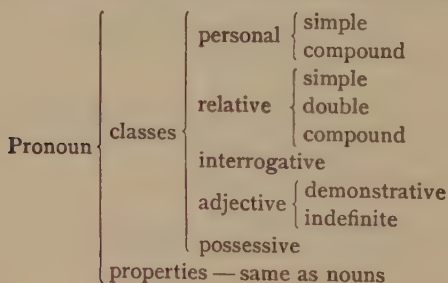
May either word be correct? If so, what difference in meaning?

9. Every person should do (his, her, their) duty.
10. It is difficult for any judge or juror to be unprejudiced in (his, their) opinion.
11. If any boy or girl be absent (he, she, they) must go to the foot of the class.
12. If (this, these) molasses (is, are) good, you may send me a gallon of (it, them).

LESSON 35

OUTLINE OF PRONOUN

1. The following is an outline of the pronoun:



2. Write a composition on "The Pronoun," using the preceding outline.

LESSON 36

PRONOUNS: DRILL ON CASE-FORMS

Select the proper word :

1. My brother did fully as well as (I, me).
2. Is it I (who, that, whom) you wish to see ?
3. (Who, whom) do you take me to be ?
4. Those flowers (that, which) you saw in the garden are pansies.
5. Was it Mary (who, that) told you ?

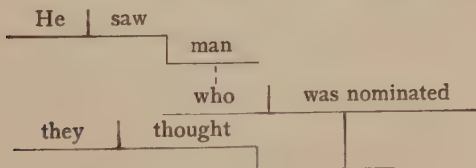
6. Has that boy (who, that) brought the note gone ?
 Will it sound well to use two *that*'s close together ?
7. Mother went with sister and (I, me).
 8. (Who, whom) do you think that I am ?
 9. All are gone but you and (I, me).
 10. I came to find out (who, whom) the people want for judge.
 11. The physicians are in a wrangle as to (who, whom) shall pay their fees.
 12. It is hard to fight those (who, whom) you know are right.
 13. It was he (who, whom) you said it to be.
 14. This is he (who, whom) I gave the book to.
 15. It was he (who, whom) you said it was.
 16. (Who, whom) do you expect to call on next ?
 17. (Who, whom) besides him do you think they rewarded ?
 18. We should give the medal to (whoever, whomever) deserves it most.
 19. (Who, whom) do you think they will elect ?
 20. (Who, whom) do you think it is ?

LESSON 37

PRONOUNS : DRILL ON CASE-FORMS — Continued

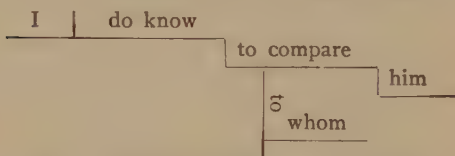
Correct where necessary :

1. He saw the man who they thought was nominated.



2. You may appoint whoever you like.
 3. Whomever the court favors is safe.
 4. A man has a right to work for whomever wants to employ him.

5. He was a man who his neighbors delighted to honor.
6. Can you not trust me — me who have befriended you ?
7. I know who wished to go.
8. I know who you wished to go.
9. They met a young man who they decided was nice looking.
10. Let us help to do it, you and I.
11. Who is it that you wish to see ?
12. Who do you wish to be chosen ?
13. The person whom I thought would be there was absent.
14. Such boys as they are not good companions.
15. Let each take their turn as their names are called.
16. I do not know whom to compare him to.



17. Do you remember whom he married ?
18. Do you remember who he went with ?
19. To whom did he refer — us or them ?

LESSON 38

SENTENCES FOR CORRECTION

i. Correct where necessary :

1. I should never have imagined it to be him.
2. It seems that they, as well as us, had made the mistake.
3. She who studies the teacher will commend.
4. I refer to Newton, he who discovered the law of gravitation.
5. Whom did you say was chosen ?
6. He agreed to vote for whoever the convention would nominate.
7. I do not know who is able to finish the work.
8. I do not know who I can get to finish the work.
9. The teacher thought it was we talking.

2. Select the proper word:

1. You may invite (whoever, whomever) will be the best company.
2. Who is he (who, that) dares insult the king?
3. Let John and (he, him) go home.
4. They all left but (he, him) and (she, her).
5. Every one must paddle (his, their) own canoe.
6. The father as well as the son agreed to use (his, their) influence.
7. There is no use in (me, my) trying the examination.
8. Such was the career of Burns, (he, him) who delighted a nation with his songs.
9. Which do you think is the younger? Horace or (he, him)?
10. Tell me (who, whom) you are looking for.

LESSON 39

DIAGRAMING AND PARSING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics:

1. The calyx is that part of the flower *which* holds the corolla.
2. Animals that eat flesh are called carnivorous *animals*.
3. He who receives a good turn should never forget it; he who does one should never remember it.
4. Those who try to do something and fail are infinitely better than *those* who try to do nothing and beautifully succeed.

Are good is understood after the second *those*.

5. It was Mr. Webster's habit first to state to *himself* his opponent's argument.
6. He who would be great in the eyes of *others* must first learn to be nothing in his own.
7. A pronoun is sometimes followed by the noun to which it refers.

8. A single sentinel was pacing to and fro beneath the arched gateway which leads to the interior, and his measured footsteps were the only sound that broke the breathless stillness of the night.
9. *Whoever* will may come.
10. *He* that formed the ear, shall He not hear?
11. Education is the debt the present owes to future generations.
12. I heard *that that* man *that* was expected has arrived.
13. Whom the gods love, die young.

LESSON 40

PRONOUNS: REVIEW

1. Explain the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair :

1. { Just think of him being engaged in such work.
 { Just think of his being engaged in such work.
2. { The man asking the question showed that he was in-
 { telligent.
 { The man's asking the question showed that he was
 { intelligent.
3. { He sent his boy to a school that did him good.
 { He sent his boy to a school, which did him good.
4. { Much depends on the teacher correcting the papers.
 { Much depends on the teacher's correcting the papers.
5. { Stop at the house, which is next to the river.
 { Stop at the house that is next to the river.
6. { My farm, which is in New York, is small.
 { My farm that is in New York is small.
7. { My brother, who lives in Alabama, came to see me.
 { My brother that lives in Alabama came to see me.
8. { I have helped you more than she.
 { I have helped you more than her.
9. { I have a picture of my father that may interest you.
 { I have a picture of my father's that may interest you.

2. Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics:

1. Sing to the Lord, all *ye* saints of *His*.
2. I heard what he wanted. (An indirect question here.)
3. He will do *what* is right.
4. From eastern rock to sunset wave the continent is *ours*.
5. All men admire *whatever* is good and true.
6. Talent is that which is in a man's power; genius is that in *whose* power a man is.

LESSON 41

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Parse the words in italics, analyze the sentences having odd numbers, and diagram the sentences having even numbers:

1. There is no fireside *but* has one vacant chair.
2. This is the dog that worried the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.
3. *What* is *yours* is mine, and all mine is yours.
4. He who surpasses or subdues mankind must look down on the hate of *those* below.
5. He was driven an *exile* from his native land.
6. He who ascends to mountains' tops shall find the loftiest peaks most wrapped in clouds and snow.
7. Where one lives as *king*, many live as *peasants*.
8. A friend of *mine* called to see me recently.
9. A playmate of *Henry's* has been injured.
10. All prize most what they do not possess.
11. Man cannot cover *what* God would reveal.
12. There is nothing great on earth but *man*; there is nothing great in man but mind.
13. The work of our hands, establish thou it.

LESSON 42

DIAGRAMING AND PARSING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. Aristotle tells us that a statue lies buried in a block of marble.
2. The first great gift we can bestow on others is a good example.
3. In Mammoth Cave are found fish that have no eyes.
4. To know how to say what is appropriate and fitting is a great accomplishment.
5. History teaches us how to read the signs of the times from passing events.
6. The oath was administered to such witnesses *as* were present.
7. Hearty and hale was he, an oak that is covered with snowflakes.
8. The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars, but in *ourselves*, that we are underlings.
9. I have never ascertained by *what* means he succeeded.
10. His praise is lost, who stays till all commend.¹
11. We shape, ourselves, the joy or fear,
Of which the coming life is made;
And fill our future atmosphere
With sunshine or with shade.

LESSON 43

PRONOUNS: REVIEW

Write a sentence containing :

1. The objective of *who*.
2. The possessive of *who*.
3. The relative *that* as a subject.
4. The relative *that* as object of a verb.

¹See *Manual*.

5. The relative *that* as object of a preposition.
6. A relative clause modifying a pronoun.
7. A relative clause, restrictive.
8. A relative clause, not restrictive.
9. A relative pronoun understood.
10. The antecedent of a relative understood.
11. A compound relative, nominative.
12. A compound relative, objective.
13. *What* as an interrogative adjective.
14. *What* as an interrogative pronoun.
15. *What* as a double relative.
16. A possessive pronoun, nominative.
17. A possessive pronoun, objective.

LESSON 44

ADJECTIVES

1. A Demonstrative Adjective is an adjective that points out in a definite manner the noun modified ; as, this, that, these, those.

2. A Distributive Adjective is an adjective that refers separately and singly to each of two or more ; as, each, every, either, neither.

Either and *neither* should be used only when referring to two objects. "Neither of the three boys is here" is incorrect ; it should be "Not one of the three boys is here."

Do not use *either* for *each*. "A house stood on either side of the road" is incorrect ; it should be "A house stood on each side of the road."

3. An Indefinite Adjective is an adjective that points out in an indefinite manner the noun that it modifies ; as, all, any, many, few, a few.

When the demonstratives, distributives, and indefinites modify nouns understood, they are adjective pronouns.

4. Notice the difference in meaning between *few*, and *a few*.

1. He was so deceitful that he had few friends.
2. Although he was deceitful, he had a few friends.

The first sentence means he had almost no friends. The second means he had some friends — more than one would expect. *Few* means not many; *a few* means some.

There is the same difference in meaning between *little* and *a little*. "He had little courage" means he had not much courage. "He had a little courage" means he had some courage.

5. An Interrogative Adjective is an adjective used in asking a question; as, "Which train did he take?"

Which and *what*, in indirect questions, are sometimes called relative adjectives; as, "He does not know which road to take."

6. Some adjectives are defective in their comparison:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
—	hither	hithernmost
—	inferior	—
—	nether	nethernmost
middle	—	middlemost
—	superior	—
and some others.		

7. *Old* has two forms for the comparative (older, elder), and two for the superlative (oldest, eldest). *Elder* and *eldest* are applied only to persons, but *older* and *oldest* are applied to persons, animals, and things.

8. *Further* and *furthest* come from *forth*, an adverb, and *farther* and *farthest* come from *far*.

Farther and *farthest* are used when referring to distance; as, "New Orleans is farther south than St. Louis."

Further refers to something additional; as, "Have you anything further to say?"

9. Adjectives of one syllable are compared by *more* and *most* when two qualities in the same person or thing are compared, and sometimes when the adjective follows its noun; as,

1. He is more kind than wise.
2. A foot more light, a step more true, ne'er trod the earth.

In poetry adjectives of one syllable, even when preceding the noun, are sometimes compared by *more* and *most*.

10. A degree below the positive is sometimes made by adding *ish*; as, blackish.

This may be called the Diminutive Degree.

11. Good writers and speakers sometimes use the superlative when comparing only two objects, but this use is not recommended.

12. When two or more adjectives are connected by conjunctions, the shortest and simplest should generally be placed first; as, "This house is newer and more comfortable than that."

When adjectives thus connected are compared differently, some authors say they should be arranged as stated above, and that *more* or *most* should be placed before the first; as, "A more brave and courageous general never led an army." It seems better, however, to say "A braver and more courageous general never led an army."

LESSON 45

ADJECTIVES — Continued

1. Some adjectives require special study:

1. Such numerical expressions as "two hundred," "three dozen," etc., should be parsed together. These expressions are adjectives

if *five*, *thirty*, etc., are adjectives. All answer the question "How many?" Even such groups as "over fifty," "upwards of twenty," etc., should be parsed together as adjectives.

2. *Many a* and *what a* should often be parsed together as adjectives; as,

a. Many a flower is born to blush unseen.

b. What a fuss he made!

A few and *a great* are often treated the same way

What a and *a great* may be adverbs; as,

a. "What a fine tail I have!" said the peacock.

b. A great many sailors perished.

3. *Less* should be applied to nouns of magnitude (bulk), and *fewer* should be applied to nouns of multitude (many); as, less wheat, fewer bushels; less money, fewer persons.

4. *Like* is often an adjective used appositively or as attribute complement; as,

a. He, like a brave man, held his ground.

b. He is like his father.

In both sentences *like* is an adjective, modifying *he*.

In these sentences *like* means similar, and *man* and *father* are objects of a preposition (to) understood.

Like may be used as an adverb; as, "He acts like a madman." In this sentence *like* means similarly, or "in a similar manner," and modifies *acts*. *Madman* is the object of *to* understood.

Unlike, *near*, *nigh*, and *opposite* are used just as *like*, but *to* is often expressed after some of them.

5. When *like* is used the second term of comparison may be a noun or pronoun, but not a clause. If a clause follows, *as* should be used instead of *like*; as,

a. He acts like a gentleman.

b. He acts as a gentleman should.

6. *Each other* and *one another* are sometimes called Reciprocals, their use making one sentence equivalent to two; as, "They love each other" = "They love; each loves the other."

Some consider *each* an appositive of *they*; as, "They each love the other," but it is better to take *each other* together as the object of *love*.

2. *More* and *Most*, when used in comparing adjectives, are usually called adverbs.

In "A more important measure was never advocated," *important* is called an adjective of the positive degree, and *more* is parsed as an adverb of the comparative degree, modifying *important*. In other words, we have an adverb of the comparative degree, not an adjective.

It is better to parse *more important* together as an adjective of the comparative degree.

3. When an article and an adjective both modify a noun, the adjective is usually placed between the article and the noun ; as, "a fine view."

Sometimes the adjective comes first ; as, "such a man," "too careless an author." *Many, such, all, both*, and adjectives modified by *too, so, and how*, usually precede the article.

4. One adjective sometimes modifies another ; as, "a light blue color," "red hot iron."

This is the view held by most authors, but there is no good reason why *light* and *red* in such sentences may not be parsed as adverbs.

5. When the article is used with two or more adjectives belonging to different nouns, the article should be repeated ; as, "an old and a young man" (two men).

In comparative expressions with *than*, if the nouns before and after *than* refer to the same person or thing, the article should not be repeated ; as, "He is a better soldier than statesman."

Rules for the use or the omission of the article cannot be given in all cases, but a careful study of the meaning intended will nearly always enable us to decide correctly.

6. In the following sentences the article is used correctly :

1. The north and the south line of the field extend east and west.

The article is repeated because there are two lines. The complete sentence is "The north line and the south line of the field extend east and west."

2. The Latin and the Greek words in English are many.

There are two classes of words. If the article is omitted before *Greek*, the meaning will be one class of words, each word a mixture of Latin and Greek.

3. The fourth and the fifth verse are short.

"The fourth and fifth verses" is used by many.

4. He is a better citizen than officer.
5. The Jonathan is a fine specimen of apple (not an apple).

7. Give the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair.

1. { Wanted, a cook and chambermaid.
{ Wanted, a cook and a chambermaid.
2. { Few men have been more unhappy.
{ A few men have been more unhappy.
3. { He was happier than any poet.
{ He was happier than any other poet.
4. { Southey is a better prose writer than poet.
{ Southey is a better prose writer than a poet.
5. { The secretary and treasurer will be on hand.
{ The secretary and the treasurer will be on hand.
6. { Margaret was happier than any girl in school.
{ Margaret was happier than any other girl in school.
7. { Grace has a red and blue dress.
{ Grace has a red and a blue dress.
8. { The city in which he lives is larger than any city
in Indiana.
{ The city in which he lives is larger than any other
city in Indiana.

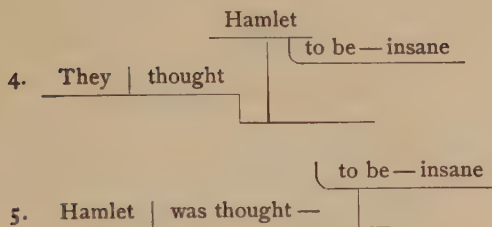
9. { The whites of America are descendants of the Europeans.
The whites of America are the descendants of the Europeans.
10. { John and Mary are children of our neighbors.
John and Mary are the children of our neighbors.
11. { That merchant has little money.
That merchant has a little money.
12. { The sick and wounded were left in the hospital.
The sick and the wounded were left in the hospital.

LESSON 46

SENTENCES FOR CORRECTION

I. Make the corrections necessary :

1. The east and west lines extend north and south.
2. The north and south lines on a map are meridians.
3. One who rules is often known by the name of a king.
4. Of all men this man best deserves promotion.
5. Of all other men this man best deserves promotion.
6. More than all men this man deserves promotion.
7. A rosy-faced and pale girl were sitting side by side.
8. He is a better disciplinarian than teacher.
9. Of all the other pictures in this room, I prefer that one.
10. What sort of a house does he live in ?
11. There were not fewer than fifty persons present.
12. I have nothing farther to say on the subject.
13. He brought three coats, neither of which was mine.
14. Of all vices, intemperance is one of the worst.
15. He showed me several, but I did not care for either of them.
16. He was so great a criminal that a few persons mourned his death.
17. Although he was a criminal, he had few friends.
18. A stream of water flows on either side of the street.



Notice that —

a. The first sentence completed is “Fire is a better servant than it is a good master.”

b. *Insane* modifies Hamlet in each of the last four sentences.

c. Although there is an objective complement in the second, there is none in the fourth. An infinitive is not used as the objective complement.

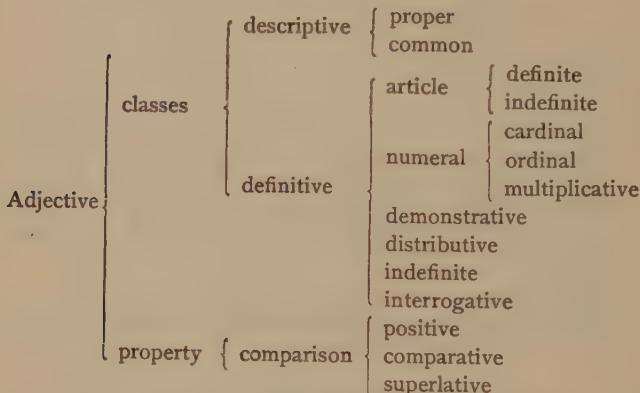
2. Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. David and Jonathan loved *each other*.
2. A punishment *less severe* would not have been tolerated.
3. There is *one mightier* than *he*.
4. By *others'* faults wise men correct their *own*.
5. Stalwart and stately in form was the man of many winters.
6. He has been unfortunate, but he still has *a few* friends.
7. Full knee-deep lies the winter snow.
8. That minister is *upwards of eighty years* old.
9. He has been a hunter and trapper for *over forty* years.
10. The evening painted the snow a golden *red*.
11. The storm swept the valleys *clean*.
12. At the close of that dreadful winter, barely sixty of the five hundred were left alive.
13. We believed the report to be true.
14. The report was believed to be true.
15. That exquisite poise of character which we call serenity is the last lesson in culture.

LESSON 48

OUTLINE OF ADJECTIVE

1. The following is an outline of the adjective :



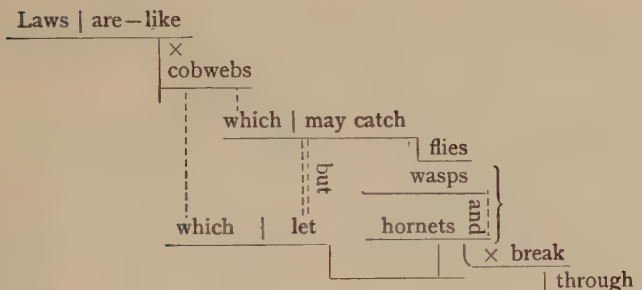
2. Using the preceding outline, write an essay on "The Adjective."

LESSON 49

DIAGRAMMING AND PARSING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. Unarmed and unattended walked the Czar.
2. He was struck *dead*.
3. All went *merry* as a marriage bell.
4. Not a single region that the Indians can now call their *own* do the winds of the Atlantic fan.
5. Laws are *like* cobwebs, which may catch small flies, but which let wasps and hornets break through.



6. Truth in the heart is *better* than truth on the lips.
7. Heaped in the hollows of the grove, the autumn leaves lie *dead*.
8. A blow with a word is *deeper* than a blow with a sword.
9. Now comes the storm, fierce and terrible.
10. Great is truth, and mighty above all things.
11. The hunter was so badly frightened that he turned *pale*.
12. The weather-cock on the steeple told, in all kinds of weather, the direction of the wind.
13. *Full many a* gem of purest ray serene,
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.
14. Every one can master a grief but him that hath it.

LESSON 50

PHRASES AS ATTRIBUTE COMPLEMENTS

I. Notice these two sentences:

1. Robert is in the house.
2. Robert is in good health.

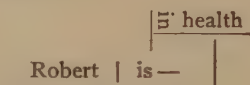
In the first sentence the phrase is an adverb of place, modifying *is*, but in the second sentence the phrase is used as an adjective in the predicate telling the condition of Robert. Robert is not in health, but health is in him.

“Robert is in good health” means “Robert is healthy.”

2. In each of these sentences there is an adjective phrase used as attribute complement :

1. He was without a penny (penniless).
2. At present, all the farm buildings are in bad repair.
3. The machine is of little value.
4. The top was of brass.

3. Notice this diagram :



Since the phrase modifies *Robert*, *in* shows the relation of *health* to *Robert*.

4. Parse the words in italics, analyze the sentences having odd numbers, and diagram those having even numbers :

1. The family is *in* need.
2. The passions of some men seem *under* no control.
3. Life is of short duration.
4. This lady is of royal blood.
5. The Whigs were then in authority.
6. The rioters were then in Paris.
7. When life is all sport, toil is the real play.
8. He was without friends.
9. Double-dealers are seldom in favor with honest men.
10. You *may break*, you may shatter the *vase* if you will,
But the scent of the roses will hang round it still.
11. Socrates died like a philosopher.
12. Mark yon aged, withered oak, once the *proudest* tree
of the forest.
13. Down the street with laughter and shout,
Glad in freedom of school let out,
Come the boys.
14. He who cherishes a beautiful vision, a lofty ideal in
his heart, will one day realize it.

LESSON 51

VERBS : CLASSES

1. In Grade Seven we learned that a verb is regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive, complete or incomplete, finite or non-finite (infinitive or participle). A verb is also either a Principal verb or an Auxiliary verb.

2. A Principal Verb is a verb that names the action or being that is asserted of the subject; as,

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. The deer <i>runs</i> . | 3. The deer has been <i>running</i> . |
| 2. The deer can <i>run</i> . | 4. The deer does <i>run</i> . |
| 5. The deer was <i>captured</i> . | |

3. An Auxiliary Verb is a verb used in the conjugation of other verbs.

4. A Copulative Verb is a verb that requires an attribute complement; as, "November winds are bare and still." "He appears old."

Copulative verbs are incomplete, and all are intransitive, except a verb in the passive voice when used copulatively.

Sometimes *be* is called the Copula, and the other verbs of this class called copulative.

5. A transitive verb in the passive voice is often used copulatively; as,

1. He was considered honest.
2. Architecture has been called frozen music.
3. The brook was frozen dry.

6. A Neuter Verb is an intransitive verb that does not express action; as, "The book lies on the table."

7. A Defective Verb is a verb that lacks one or more of its principal parts ; as, *ought*.

8. A Redundant Verb is a verb that has more than one form for its past tense or past participle ; as, *bid*.

9. An Impersonal Verb is a verb used only in the third person, singular number ; as, "It rains."

Impersonal verbs are sometimes called Unipersonal Verbs.

10. A Compound Verb is a verb combined with some other part of speech (usually a preposition) ; as,

1. The carriage *was sent for*.

2. He *was well taken care of*.

When in a sentence of the active form the object of a preposition is made the subject in changing the sentence to the passive form, we nearly always have a compound verb ; as,

1. They sent for the carriage. The carriage was sent for.

2. They took care of him. He was taken care of.

These compound passive forms should be parsed as transitive. Compound verbs are not often found in the active voice.

11. Make a sentence containing —

1. A finite verb.

2. A non-finite verb.

3. A principal verb.

4. An auxiliary verb.

5. *Have* as a principal verb.

6. A copulative verb.

7. A neuter verb.

8. A defective verb.

9. An impersonal verb.

10. A compound verb.

LESSON 52

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

The following list of irregular verbs is given for reference. Those marked *r* are also regular. Forms little used are printed in italics.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
abide	abode	abode	clothe, r.	clad	clad
am, be	was	been	come	came	come
arise	arose	arisen	cost	cost	cost
awake, r.	awoke	awaked	creep	crept	crept
bake	baked	{baked <i>baken</i>	crow, r.	crew	crowed
bear	{bore <i>bare</i>	born	cut	cut	cut
bear (to carry)	{bore <i>bare</i>	borne	dare, r.	durst	dared
beat	beat	{beaten beat	deal	dealt	dealt
begin	began	begun	dig, r.	dug	dug
bend, r.	bent	bent	do	did	done
bereave, r.	bereft	bereft	draw	drew	drawn
beseech	besought	besought	dream, r.	dreamt	dreamt
bet	bet	bet	dress, r.	drest	drest
bless, r.	blest	blest	drink	drank	{drank drunk
bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid	drive	drove	driven
bind	bound	bound	dwelt	dwelt	dwelt
bite	bit	bitten, bit	eat	ate	eaten
bleed	bled	bled	fall	fell	fallen
blow	blew	blown	feed	fed	fed
break	{broke <i>brake</i>	broken	feel	felt	felt
breed	bred	bred	fight	fought	fought
bring	brought	brought	find	found	found
build, r.	built	built	flee	fled	fled
burn, r.	burnt	burnt	fling	flung	flung
burst	burst	burst	fly	flew	flown
buy	bought	bought	forsake	forsook	forsaken
cast	cast	cast	freeze	froze	frozen
catch	caught	caught	get	got	got, gotten
chide	chid	chidden	gild, r.	gilt	gilt
choose	chose	chosen	gird, r.	girt	girt
cleave, r. (to split)	{clove cleft	{cloven cleft	give	gave	given
cling	clung	clung	go	went	gone
			grave, r.	graved	graven
			grind	ground	ground
			grow	grew	grown
			hang, r.	hung	hung
			have	had	had

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
hear	heard	heard	rise	rose	risen
heave, r.	hove	hove	rive, r.	rived	riven
hew, r.	hewed	hewn	run	ran	run
hide	hid	hidden, hid	saw, r.	sawed	sawn
hit	hit	hit	say	said	said
hold	held	{held holden	see	saw	seen
hurt	hurt	hurt	seek	sought	sought
keep	kept	kept	seethe, r.	seethed	sodden
kneel, r.	knelt	knelt	sell	sold	sold
knit, r.	knit	knit	send	sent	sent
know	knew	known	set	set	set
lade, r.	laded	laden	shake	shook	shaken
lay	laid	laid	shape, r.	shaped	shapen
lead	led	led	shave, r.	shaved	shaven
lean, r.	leant	leant	shear, r.	sheared	shorn
leap, r.	leapt	leapt	shed	shed	shed
leave	left	left	shine	shone	shone
lend	lent	lent	shoe	shod	shod
let	let	let	shoot	shot	shot
lie	lay	lain	show, r.	showed	shown
light, r.	lit	lit	shred	shred	shred
lose	lost	lost	shrink	{shrunk shrank	shrunk shrunken
make	made	made	shut	shut	shut
mean	meant	meant	sing	sang	sung
meet	met	met	sink	sank	sunk
mow, r.	mowed	mown	sit	sat	sat
pay	paid	paid	slay	slew	slain
pen, r. (to inclose)	pent	pent	sleep	slept	slept
put	put	put	slide	slid	{slidden slid
quit, r.	quit	quit	sling	slung	slung
rap, r.	rapt	rapt	slink	slunk	slunk
read	read	read	slit	slit	slit
rend	rent	rent	smite	smote	smitten
rid	rid	rid	sow, r.	sowed	sown
ride	rode	ridden			
ring	{rang rung	rung	speak	{spoke spake	spoken

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past P.</i>
speed	sped	sped	swell, r.	swelled	swollen
spend	spent	spent	swim	swam	swum
spill, r.	spilt	spilt	swing	swung	swung
spin	{ spun <i>span</i>	spun	take	took	taken
spit	spit, <i>spat</i>	spit	teach	taught	taught
split	split	split	tear	tore, <i>tare</i>	torn
spread	spread	spread	tell	told	told
spring	sprang	sprung	think	thought	thought
stand	stood	stood	thrive, r.	{ thrived <i>throve</i>	thriven
stave, r.	stove	stove	throw	threw	thrown
stay, r.	staid	staid	thrust	thrust	thrust
steal	stole	stolen	tread	trod	{ trodden trod
stick	stuck	stuck	wax, r.	waxed	waxen
sting	stung	stung	wear	worn	worn
strew, r.	strewed	strewn	weave	wove	woven
stride	strode	stridden	weep	wept	wept
strike	struck	{ struck stricken	wet, r.	wet	wet
string	strung	strung	whet, r.	whet	whet
strive	strove	striven	win	won	won
swear	{ swore <i>sware</i>	sworn	wind	wound	wound
sweat	sweat	sweat	work, r.	wrought	wrought
sweep	swept	swept	wring	wrung	wrung
			write	wrote	written

LESSON 53

VOICE

1. An intransitive verb has only the active voice.

Since an intransitive verb has no object to become the subject, it follows that an intransitive verb cannot be made passive. We have seen, however, that an intransitive verb may sometimes be made passive by using the object of a preposition for the subject, and that we then have a compound verb.

2. The passive voice of any verb is formed by prefixing to the past participle of that verb some form of the verb *be*.

From this it follows that all the passive forms of any verb will end with the same word, and that word is the past participle of that verb. For example, the past participle of *see* is *seen*, and the passive of *see* in every mode and tense will end with *seen*. We should remember, however, that while all passive forms end with the past participle, not all forms ending with the past participle are passive. In order to form a passive verb, the past participle must be preceded by some form of *be*. *Has seen* ends with the past participle, but it has no form of *be*; therefore it is not passive. *Has been seen* has a form of *be* before the participle; therefore it is passive.

The form of the verb *be* that should be used is the form found in the mode and tense called for in the passive verb. *Example.* — What is the indicative, past perfect, third singular, passive of *write*? The past participle of *write* is *written*; the indicative, past perfect, third singular of *be* is *had been*; therefore, the required form is *had been written*. What is the present passive participle of *write*? The present participle of *be* is *being*; therefore, the required form is *being written*.

Sometimes the form of *be* is not expressed; as, "The money stolen yesterday has been recovered." "The money (having been) or (that was) stolen yesterday has been recovered."

3. Name the voice of each verb (including infinitives and participles) in these sentences:

1. The river has overflowed its banks.
2. The farmer has been plowing the field.
3. That money might have been stolen.
4. The stories written by Scott have been read by thousands.
5. The student ought to have been studying.
6. The student ought to have studied.
7. The lesson ought to have been studied.
8. Be chosen.
9. Be quiet.

10. A belted knight can be made by a king.
11. The witness, having been sworn, began to testify.
12. The witness, having sworn to tell the truth, began to testify.
13. The work having been completed, we returned.

4. Use each of these verbs in two sentences, active in one, passive in the other :

catch break call climb wrap

5. Change the voice of each verb in these sentences without changing the mode or tense :

1. Health and plenty cheered the laborer.
2. The horse stepped on the child's foot.
3. The officer must attend to this matter.
4. "Evangeline" was written by Longfellow.
5. Having read the book, we returned it to the owner.
6. The invalid was lying on the bed.¹

LESSON 54

MODE

1. Mode is that form or use of the verb which shows the manner in which the action or being is expressed.

Notice that the definition says "form or use of the verb." By most late grammarians, mode is held to be a form of the verb rather than the manner in which the action is expressed. Thus, "go," "you shall go," and "you must go" all express about the same idea, but three different modes are used because three different forms are used.

2. In the indicative mode the assertion is made chiefly with the principal verb; as, "The dog has *barked*."

¹ See *Manual*.

3. In the potential mode the assertion is made chiefly with the auxiliary verb ; as, "The dog *can* bark."

Some grammars give no potential mode, placing the potential forms (may, etc.) with either the indicative or the subjunctive ; but if mode is a form of the verb, there will be a potential mode as long as *may*, *might*, etc., are used.

4. While the imperative is usually found only in the second person, it may be found in either the first or the third ; as,

1. Turn we aside and rest awhile.
2. Be it known to all men.

5. In the active voice, the subjunctive has but one tense, the present. In the verb *be*, and in the passive voice, the subjunctive has two tenses, present and past.

Probably authors differ more in regard to the subjunctive mode than in regard to any other part of grammar. Some grammarians give this mode six tenses, some four, some two, and some only a part of a tense.

In some languages, mode is a form of the verb ; that is, the verb has a different form for each of the different modes. Some authors adhere to this view in English, while others assert that mode depends on the meaning, not on the form. Those holding the latter view say that when a clause is introduced by *if*, *though*, *lest*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, etc., the meaning has been changed, therefore the mode of the verb has been changed. "I had gone" means I did go ; "If I had gone" means I did not go ; therefore, say these authors, the mode of the verb has been changed because the meaning has been changed.

If we examine the verbs in "I had gone" and "If I had gone," we shall find that they are precisely the same, and that the difference in meaning is made by the little word *if*. But as *if* is not part of the verb, the writer believes that both verbs are in the same mode, the indicative.

Taking the view, then, that mode depends on the form of the verb, there are but two subjunctive forms in each verb (except the verb *be*): "If thou go," and "If he go," both found in the present tense, singular. If we drop the *if*, *go* in the first must be changed to *goest*, and in the second to *goes*.

"If he runs" is indicative, and "If he run" is subjunctive. The *s* is omitted from the subjunctive because the auxiliary *shall* or *should* is understood. "If he run" means "If he shall (or should) run." "If he run" is called subjunctive present, but it denotes future time. "If it rains" is indicative present, and denotes present time. "If it rain" is subjunctive present and denotes future time.

In the verb *be* there are two subjunctives: "If I be," and "If I were." The first is called present tense, but it denotes future time; the second is called past tense, but it denotes present time. As the passive voice always contains some form of *be*, verbs in the passive voice have two subjunctives, a present and a past; as, "if I be seen," and "If I were seen."

Therefore, if, in the present tense, active voice, of a verb, we drop the *st* or *est* from the second person singular (solemn style), and the *s* from the third person singular, we shall have all the subjunctive forms to be found in the active voice. If we prefix the two subjunctive tenses of *be* (as given in the conjugation) to the past participle of a transitive verb, we shall have all the subjunctive forms to be found in the passive voice.

6. The following is the conjugation of the verb *love* in the subjunctive :

ACTIVE VOICE

PRESENT TENSE

2. If thou love.

3. If he love.

This tense denotes future time.

PASSIVE VOICE

PRESENT TENSE

Singular

1. If I be loved
2. If you be loved
3. If he be loved

Plural

1. If we be loved
2. If you be loved
3. If they be loved

PAST TENSE

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. If I were loved | 1. If we were loved |
| 2. If you were loved | 2. If you were loved |
| 3. If he were loved | 3. If they were loved |

This tense denotes present time.

7. The subjunctive is sometimes used (without *if*) in expressing a wish ; as,

1. I wish I were a poet.
2. Would that I were a poet.

8. In each of these sentences there is a verb in the subjunctive mood :

1. I wish I were at home.
2. If he be here, give him this letter.
3. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.

9. Name the tense and the time of each subjunctive in the sentences of the preceding paragraph.

10. Name the mode of each verb in these sentences, and tell the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair :

1. { If my sister were here, she would enjoy this.
 { If my sister was here, I did not know it.
2. { Though he be poor, he will pay his debts.
 { Though he is poor, he pays his debts.
3. { If he is sick, we shall visit him.
 { If he be sick, we shall visit him.

LESSON 55

MODE — Continued

1. Select the correct word from each parenthesis :

1. If he (was, were) honest, he would pay me.
2. I should veto the bill (was, were) I governor.

3. I wish the day (was, were) fair.
4. Would that my brother (was, were) here.
5. If he (was, were) coming, he would be here now.
6. Although he (is, be) honest and industrious, he has not succeeded.

2. Write a sentence having a verb in —

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. The potential active. | 5. The potential passive. |
| 2. The imperative, first person. | 6. The imperative, third person. |
| 3. The subjunctive present. | 7. The subjunctive past. |
| 4. The subjunctive passive. | 8. The subjunctive without <i>if</i> . |
| 9. The subjunctive to express future time. | |
| 10. The subjunctive to express present time. | |

LESSON 56

TENSE

1. Tense is that form or use of the verb that shows the time of an action or being.

Notice that tense is the form or the use of the verb. In the indicative and the imperative, the time gives the name to the tense, but in the potential and the subjunctive the form often gives the name to the tense. *Might, could, would, and should* are called signs of the past potential, but they nearly always express present or future time.

2. In some of the modes and tenses there are three forms for the same tense (exclusive of different signs for the same tense): as,

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| 1. { I write. | 2. { I wrote. |
| { I am writing. | { I was writing. |
| { I do write. | { I did write. |

The three verbs in the first group are all in the indicative present, and the three in the second group are in the indicative past. The first form in each tense is called the Common Form. In the second

form of each tense, "am writing" and "was writing," the act is still in progress; this is called the Progressive Form. In the third form of each tense, the assertion is made with emphasis; this is called the Emphatic Form.

3. The Progressive Form of the verb is the form which represents the action in progress.

The progressive form is found in all the modes and tenses, including the infinitive and the participle, and is formed by placing before the present participle of the verb the various mode and tense forms of *be*.

Since the progressive form always ends with the present participle, and the passive always ends with the past participle, it follows that the progressive form is in the active voice.

Sometimes we find a progressive form in the passive voice; as, "The house is being built." Some authors object to this form, preferring "The house is building," but we sometimes need the passive form to express the meaning clearly. "Wheat is selling" and "Wheat is being sold" mean the same, but "The men are paying for their work" and "The men are being paid for their work" do not mean the same.

4. The Emphatic Form of the verb is the form in which the assertion is made with emphasis.

This form is made by placing the present or the past of *do* before the simple form of the verb, and is found in the active voice of the indicative present and past, the subjunctive present, and in both the active and the passive of the imperative. This form is also used in asking questions; as, "Does he write?"

5. When we speak of a past action or event, and no part of the time in which it took place remains, we should use the past tense; but if there still remains some portion of the time in which it took place, we should use the present-perfect tense; as,

1. Science made great advancement in the nineteenth century.
2. Science has already made great advancement this century.
3. I have worked hard to-day. (It is not yet night.)
4. I worked hard to-day. (It is night.)

6. What is the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair ?

1. { I have been reading this morning.
 { I read this morning.
2. { He has been a resident of this city for fifteen years.
 { He was a resident of this city for fifteen years.
3. { How long have you been sick?
 { How long were you sick?

7. When two past actions or events are referred to, one of which must have occurred before the other, this order of time must be observed in the use of the tenses; as,

1. After the Constitution had been adopted, Washington was elected president.

Both events occurred in past time, but since one took place before the other, we use the past-perfect tense for the earlier event and the past tense for the later.

2. Napoleon reigned one hundred days after he had returned from the island of Elba.

8. Statements always true or always false should be expressed in the present tense; as,

1. Columbus believed that the earth is round.
2. It was proved years ago that the air has weight.

9. Tense-forms should express time in harmony with that indicated by other parts of the sentence; as, "He will go next week."

You will often hear such expressions as "He is going next week," but as the verb is present and "next week" is future, the two do not harmonize.

10. Correct where necessary, and parse the words in italics :

1. After we visited Paris, we returned to the United States.
2. If my friend *were* now present, I should be satisfied.
3. If the snow was four feet deep, it *would* not *prevent* his going.
4. The church is being painted.
5. Stone walls *do* not a prison *make*,
Nor iron bars a cage.
6. Blessed are the peacemakers.
7. *Blessed be* he that first invented sleep.

LESSON 57

VERBS: AGREEMENT WITH SUBJECT

1. In addition to the rules given in Grade Seven, the following suggestions for the agreement of a finite verb with its subject are given :

1. When there are two or more subjects, taken separately, and differing in number or person, the verb agrees with the nearest subject ; as, "Neither the pupils nor the teacher has arrived." "Neither the teacher nor the pupils have arrived." In such sentences, some authors say it is better to place the plural subject next the verb.

In accordance with the above rule, this sentence is correct : "You or he is to blame" ; but some say it is better to give each subject its own verb ; as, "You are to blame, or he is."

2. In such sentences as "Charles and his father too is going," "Charles and his father also is going," the verb should be singular.

Notice that the speaker does not intend to give the information that both are going. Some one else has said that Charles is going (or the hearer already knows it), and the speaker grants that, and then adds that the father too is going.

3. When singular subjects connected by *and* are in apposition, the verb is singular; as, "The soldier and statesman has gone."

The same is true when the subjects are not in apposition, if the latter is added to make the former more emphatic; as, "The bone and marrow of the subject was this."

4. Collective nouns denoting persons are more frequently considered plural than those denoting things. It is better to say "The public are invited" than to say "The public is invited."

If the individuals perform the acts separately, or in groups, it is better to have the verb plural; as, "A number of carriages (at various times) have passed to-day, and the number at the picnic grounds is becoming large."

5. Often the number of the verb depends on the idea in the mind of the speaker, rather than on the words he uses; as,

1. Why is dust and ashes proud?
2. Twelve inches is the length of the stick.
3. Five dollars is too much for that hat.

In the first sentence, the speaker had in mind *man*, although he said "dust and ashes." In the second, the twelve inches are thought of as one thing—length. In the third, the dollars are thought of as one price.

Both of the following are correct:

1. Fifteen dollars is more than the coat is worth.
2. Fifteen silver dollars are lying on the table.

6. Usually the phrase modifying the subject has no influence in determining the number of the verb, but in some cases it has—especially when the subject is a fraction; as,

1. Two thirds of the cartridges are lost.
2. Two thirds of the powder is lost.

Both are correct. In the first, *cartridges* is a noun of multitude (composed of individuals), while in the second, *powder* is a noun of magnitude (bulk). In like manner we have "Three fourths of the wheat is sold," and "Three fourths of the potatoes are sold."

7. The verb *need*, when followed by *not*, forms the third person singular without adding *s*; as, "He need not recite."

The verb *dare* is sometimes used in the same way; as, "He dare not go."

2. All the rules given for the agreement of a verb with its subject apply also to the agreement of a pronoun with its antecedent.

3. When a verb has for its subject personal pronouns differing in person, the second person should come first, the third person next, and the first person nearest the verb; as, "You, he, and I are invited."

4. The verbs and pronouns in these sentences are correct. Give reasons for the forms used :

1. Many a man has sad recollections of his youth.
2. There were more than one of us.
3. The side *A*, together with the sides *B* and *C*, composes the triangle.

Together with is a preposition.

4. By the term *fossils* are meant the petrified remains of animals and plants.
5. No learning, however profound, no genius, however brilliant, has ever enabled a man to solve that problem.
6. Bread and milk is excellent food for children.
7. The bread and the milk are on the table.
8. A hot and a cold spring were found in the same neighborhood.
9. She is one of the best mothers that have ever lived.
10. He is one of the bravest men that have ever fought for their country.
11. Thou art the man that has done this great wrong.
12. Money, as well as men, is needed.
13. Men, as well as money, are needed.
14. Either Mary or I am in the wrong.
15. Either Mary is in the wrong, or I am.
16. Nothing but trials and disappointments seems to await me.
17. Every door and every window was crowded with spectators.

18. That able scholar and critic has lost his valuable library.
19. When the barn burned, two thirds of the horses were saved, but five sixths of the wheat was burned.
20. Sufficient data have been given.

LESSON 58

DRILL ON CORRECT VERBS AND PRONOUNS

Study these sentences carefully, and make the corrections necessary in the forms of the verbs and pronouns :

1. Danger, long travel, want, or woe,
Soon changes the form that best we know.
2. Praise from a friend, or censure from a foe,
Are lost on hearers who our merits know.
3. Till through the British world was known
The names of Pitt and Fox alone.
4. There are one or more reasons for this.
5. Avarice is one of the passions that are never satisfied.
6. Not one of my neighbor's sons have succeeded in
their business.
7. The committee consists of the following members.
8. Ten dollars are too much to pay for it.
9. For a laggard in love and a dastard in war
Was to wed the fair Ellen of Young Lochinvar.
10. That you were present and heard the address is quite
true.
11. They have visited us yesterday. (Notice the tense.)
12. You may take a walk after you finish your task.
13. He was tardy every day this week. (This was said
Thursday.)
14. Eight horses are no part of twelve cows.
15. Eight is what part of twelve ?
16. He is such a genius that he needs not study.
17. The end and aim of his life is to get money.
18. It is one of the books that please me.
19. It is the one of the books that please me.

LESSON 59

REVIEW

1. Write a sentence containing a verb that has —

1. Two or more singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor*.
2. Two singular subjects connected by *as well as*.
3. Two subjects connected by *as well as*, first subject plural, second subject singular.
4. Two subjects, differing in number, and taken separately.
5. Two subjects, differing in person, and taken separately.
6. Two subjects, differing in number, one affirmative, the other negative.
7. The pronouns *I*, *you*, and *he* for the subject.
8. Two singular nouns in apposition for the subject.

2. Write a sentence containing a personal pronoun having for its antecedent —

1. A singular noun preceded by *each* or *every*.
2. Two or more singular nouns connected by *or* or *nor*.
3. Two singular nouns connected by *as well as*.
4. Two nouns differing in number, and taken separately.
5. Two nouns differing in number, one affirmative and the other negative.
6. Two singular nouns, differing in gender, and taken separately.

LESSON 60

DIAGRAMING AND PARSING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. Many rivers west of the Rocky Mountains flow into the Pacific Ocean. (*West* is an adjective.)
2. The flowers *put forth* in the month of May.

3. The men who have changed the world, with the world
have disagreed.
4. Oh! A rare old plant is the ivy green,
That creepeth o'er ruins old.
5. Rip Van Winkle said, "I *can't tell what's* my name,
or who I am."
6. To me the meanest flower that blows *can give*
Thoughts that *do* often *lie* too deep for tears.
7. But in his duty *prompt* at every call,
He watched and wept, he prayed and felt for all.

No word is a participle unless it is derived from a verb.

8. It is better to receive than *to do* a wrong.
9. If it *were done* when 'tis done, then *'twere* well
It were done quickly.
10. David Copperfield is one of the best works of fiction
written by Dickens.
11. Around the man who seeks a noble end,
Not angels, but divinities, attend. — *Emerson.*
12. The happiness of man lies in *pursuing*, not in possess-
ing. — *Longfellow.*
13. Few persons are without faults.
14. If our faults were written on our faces, how quickly we
should *all* hang our heads.

LESSON 61

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Analyze these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. Whene'er a noble deed *is wrought*,
Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,
Our hearts in glad surprise,
To higher levels rise.
2. The stranger at my fireside cannot see
The forms I see nor hear the sounds I hear ;
He but perceives what *is* ; while unto me
All that has been is visible and clear.

3. The vessels were of oak.
4. Ill *fares* the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.
5. To thine own self *be* true,
And it must follow, *as* the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.
6. I wish it to be distinctly understood that I know nothing
of his *whereabouts*.
7. *Choose* an author as you choose a friend.
8. Character is not a copied thing, but *that which* we really
are.

LESSON 62

THE INFINITIVE

1. In addition to the forms of the infinitive given in Grade Seven, there are progressive forms; as, "to be seeing" and "to have been seeing."

The complete list of the infinitives of *see* is —

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Present-Perfect</i>
ACTIVE:	{ to see to be seeing	{ to have seen to have been seeing
PASSIVE:	to be seen	to have been seen

2. The infinitive may be used as the object of a preposition; as, "They had no choice but to go."

3. The infinitive is sometimes used independently; as, "To be or not to be, that is the question."

This may be called the noun construction by pleonasm.

Other noun constructions are sometimes given in grammars, but it is not necessary to give more if we remember that the construction of an infinitive is precisely that of a noun performing the same office.

4. The infinitive has the construction of an adjective, when it has an objective subject.

In "I want my horse to be shod," "horse to be shod" is the object of *want*, *horse* is the objective subject of "to be shod," and "to be shod" has the construction of an adjective, modifying *horse*.

This explains why, in the diagram, we place the infinitive under its subject.

5. Notice these sentences :

1. We are to blame.
3. They are expected to come.
2. He is to go.
4. He was thought to be a surgeon.

In each of these sentences the infinitive has the construction of an adjective in the predicate, modifying the subject.

Changing the third and the fourth to the active voice, we have "We expected them to come," and "They thought him to be a surgeon." Notice that the infinitives are still adjectives, belonging to the same persons as before.

6. An infinitive with the construction of an adverb may modify an adverb ; as, "It is cold enough to snow."

7. Notice these sentences :

1. I ordered the letter written.
2. I ordered the letter to be written.

The two sentences mean the same, but there is considerable difference in their analyses. In the first, the participle *written* is the objective complement, belonging to *letter*, and *letter* is in the objective case, object of *ordered written*. In the second, *letter* is in the objective case, subject of the infinitive, and the infinitive is an adjective, modifying *letter*. If we call "to be written" the objective complement, we must say that *letter* is the object of "ordered to be written" ; but we much prefer calling *letter* the subject of the infinitive. Therefore —

8. An infinitive is never used as the objective complement.

9. It is not necessary to give every infinitive a subject, even when it modifies a noun or pronoun.

In "There is a time to weep," *to weep* should be parsed as modifying *time*, and nothing need be said about a subject.

10. The time of the present infinitive is the same as that of the finite verb in the sentence, and the time of the present-perfect infinitive is previous to that of the finite verb.

In "I want to go," the present infinitive represents present time because *want* is present; but in "I wanted to go," the present infinitive represents past time because *wanted* is past.

In "He seems to have read many books," the finite verb *seems* is present, and since the present-perfect infinitive represents time previous to that of the finite verb, "to have read" must represent past time (time previous to the present is past); and this is all right, because the reading has already been done.

In "I hoped to have gone," the finite verb is past, and the present-perfect infinitive must express past time before the past expressed by *hoped*; in other words, when the hoping took place, the going had already been done. But we know that the hoping occurred first; therefore, the sentence is incorrect, and should be changed to "I hoped to go." The wrong infinitive is used in "I expected to have gone to Europe last year," and in "We desired to have seen you yesterday."

Probably the present-perfect infinitive is used correctly as often with *ought* as with all other verbs combined. *Ought* is a defective verb, now used only in the present, but we make it refer to past time by using it in connection with the present-perfect infinitive; as, "You ought to have gone yesterday." *Ought* is present, but the infinitive used, referring to time previous to that of the finite verb, refers to past time. Try some other verb instead of *ought*; as, "You wished to have gone," "You wanted to have gone," "It was your duty to have gone." All these are incorrect.

11. Explain why the infinitive in each of these sentences is incorrect:

1. He was under obligations to have assisted me.
 2. It must have been very difficult to have kept it secret so long.
- I meant to have given you several questions of that kind.

4. I expected to have heard from him before this.
5. I was in hopes to have finished it before you came.

12. Give the construction of each infinitive in these sentences :

1. Evil falls on him that goes to seek it.
2. It is a difficult task to root out old errors.
3. They had the good fortune to escape.
4. You were kind enough to aid.
5. I want my watch to run.
6. To be candid with you, I do not like the proposition.

LESSON 63

THE INFINITIVE — Continued

1. Give the construction of each infinitive in these sentences and parse those in italics :

1. It is a crime to receive stolen goods.
2. You have a problem to solve.

While *to solve* is active, it has a sort of passive meaning; "You have a problem to be solved." Such infinitives are common; as, "a horse to sell," "a house to rent," etc.

3. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.
4. To obey is better than *to be punished*.
5. They appear to have been industrious.
6. Our hope is to become scholars.
7. He was not afraid *to speak* the truth.
8. To hit the mark, aim above it.
9. Everybody hopes to live long, yet no one desires *to grow* old.
10. If all the year were playing holidays,
To sport would be as tedious as *to work*.
11. One stumble is enough *to deface* the character of an honorable life.
12. Not to save my right hand would I do it.

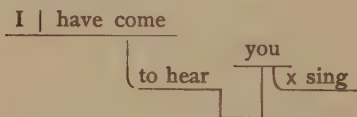
2. Diagram sentences 4, 8, 10, and 12 of the preceding paragraph.

LESSON 64

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Of these sentences, analyze those having odd numbers, and diagram those having even numbers; also, parse the words in italics:

1. I have come to hear you *sing*.



2. There is a time *to work* and a time to play.

The verb *is* is singular, although it has two subjects, *time* and *time*. This is because the subjects follow the verb and are emphasized. *Is* is understood with the last subject.

3. Let honesty and industry be thy companions.
 4. It seems to be an established fact that the fixed stars move.
 5. The time that we live ought not to be computed by the number of years, but by the use that *has been made* of them.

The first *that* is not the object of *live*. The infinitive following *ought* has the construction of an adverb.

6. He who has learned to obey those who are in authority will know how to command.
 7. Cæsar seems to have been ambitious.
 8. It is never too late to mend.
 9. It is worth while to go to Strassburg just to see the cathedral. (*While* is a noun.)
 10. The highest culture is to speak no ill.
 11. The horse was led into the yard to be sold.
 12. The groom led the horse to be sold.
 13. It is easy to struggle, but the hardest thing in the world is to avoid surrender.

LESSON 65

PARTICIPLES

1. In addition to the participles given in Grade Seven, there is a progressive form for the past-perfect, active; as, "having been seeing."

The complete list of the participles of *see* is —

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past-Perfect</i>
ACTIVE: seeing	seen	{ having seen having been seeing
PASSIVE: being seen	seen	having been seen

2. Examine these sentences:

1. The dog came howling.

Some may think that *howling* modifies *came*, but it does not; it does not tell the time, place, manner, rate, or anything else in regard to the coming of the dog. Suppose the dog continues coming precisely as before except that it stops howling, it is easily seen that the coming of the dog has been changed in no respect; therefore, *howling* does not modify *came*; it has the construction of an adjective in the predicate, modifying *dog*.

2. The dog came running.

Now if the dog changes from running to walking, the coming has been changed; the dog does not come so fast as before. Therefore, *running* modifies *came*, and has the construction of an adverb. *Running*, however, still seems to belong in some way to *dog*—it was a running dog—and, for this reason, some good authorities say a participle never has the construction of an adverb.

3. A participle may have the construction of an adverb; as,

1. The awkward boy went stumbling across the room.
2. The horse came limping up the street.

A participle with the construction of an adverb nearly always (if not always) modifies a verb of motion.

4. A participle may be used independently; as, "Speaking of literature, have you read Macaulay's Essays?"

In such sentences, we may supply a noun or pronoun; as, "We speaking of literature, etc."

5. A participle preceded by the article *the* becomes a pure noun, taking neither an object nor an adverb modifier.

We may say "By writing a neat letter, he obtained the position," but if we insert *the* before *writing*, we must use a preposition to govern *letter*; as, "By the writing of a neat letter, he obtained the position." We may say "by writing neatly," but we should not say "by the writing neatly."

Many participles become pure nouns even when not preceded by *the*; as, "Reading and writing are school exercises." If we add adjectives, and say "Distinct reading and plain writing are school exercises," *reading* and *writing* are still pure nouns; but if we add adverbs instead of adjectives, and say "Reading distinctly and writing plainly, etc.," *reading* and *writing* are participles having the construction of a noun. Also, if we add objects, and say "Reading books and writing letters, etc.," *reading* and *writing* are participles having the construction of a noun.

6. The last word of a verb in the passive voice is always the past participle of a transitive verb; as, "has been written," "to have been written," "having been written."

Sometimes it is difficult to decide whether a word is an adjective in the predicate, or a participle forming part of a passive verb. For instance, in "The field was plowed" is *plowed* an adjective in the predicate, naming the condition of the field, or should *was plowed* be parsed together as a verb in the passive voice? We cannot decide this until we know what the speaker meant when he used the sentence. If he answered some such question, as "Was the field

GRADE VIII

8. Achilles lamented taking such a step.
9. Heroism is *daring* to do right.
10. The girl is having a dress *made*.

girl | is having / made —
dress

11. Little Jack Horner sat in the corner, eating a Christ mas pie.
12. A cottage *nestling* among the trees peeped out upon the traveler.

LESSON 67

PARTICIPLES: ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Analyze these sentences, and parse the words in italics:

1. The boy ran *leaping* and skipping merrily.
2. I anticipate *having* a good time.
3. It is easy finding reasons why other people should be patient. (*Why* is a conjunctive adverb.)
4. A little brook, glancing in the sunshine, ran winding through the meadow.
5. Attempting much and doing little is a common cause of failure. (Why is the verb singular?)
6. There is nothing so difficult as the art of *making* advice agreeable.

nothing | is — difficult
so
 art | x — x
as
 to —
 making / agreeable —
 advice

7. Avoid keeping company with the depraved.

LESSON 68

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES: PARSING

Parse the infinitives and participles in these sentences :

1. The jury having been sworn, the trial proceeded.
2. His having failed is not surprising.
3. The auditorium is capable of seating three thousand people.
4. But yonder comes the powerful king of day, rejoicing in the east.
5. The sound of sweet music is said to have a charm that will soothe grief or sadness.
6. We have hearts to feel and hands to do,
And eyes to pierce the darkness through.
7. He hears the parson pray and preach,
He hears his daughter's voice,
Singing in the village choir,
And it makes his heart rejoice.
8. The best education in the world is that obtained by struggling to get a living.
9. The smallest dewdrop that lies on the meadow at night has a star sleeping in its bosom.
10. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

LESSON 69

PARTICIPLES AND INFINITIVES: REVIEW

1. Write all the infinitives and all the participles of —
burn fly steal do
2. Write a sentence containing a participle with the construction of —
 1. An adjective, not in the predicate.
 2. An adjective, attribute complement.
 3. A noun, objective case.
 4. An adjective, objective complement.
 5. An adverb.

3. Write a sentence having an infinitive used —

1. As an adverb modifying an adverb.
2. Independently.
3. As a noun, object of a preposition.

LESSON 70

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE*¹

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

*Singular**Plural*

1. I am

1. We are

2. You are

2. You are

3. He is

3. They are

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE

1. I have been

1. We have been

2. You have been

2. You have been

3. He has been, *or* hath been

3. They have been

PAST TENSE

1. I was

1. We were

2. You were

2. You were

3. He was

3. They were

PAST-PERFECT TENSE

1. I had been

1. We had been

2. You had been

2. You had been

3. He had been

3. They had been

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall be

1. We shall be

2. You will be

2. You will be

3. He will be

3. They will be

¹ See *Manual*.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been | 1. We shall have been |
| 2. You will have been | 2. You will have been |
| 3. He will have been | 3. They will have been |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| 1. If I be | 1. If we be |
| 2. If you be | 2. If you be |
| 3. If he be | 3. If they be |

PAST TENSE

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I were | 1. If we were |
| 2. If you were | 2. If you were |
| 3. If he were | 3. If they were |

POTENTIAL MODE

PRESENT TENSE

- | | |
|---------------|----------------|
| 1. I may be | 1. We may be |
| 2. You may be | 2. You may be |
| 3. He may be | 3. They may be |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I may have been | 1. We may have been |
| 2. You may have been | 2. You may have been |
| 3. He may have been | 3. They may have been |

PAST TENSE

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| 1. I might be | 1. We might be |
| 2. You might be | 2. You might be |
| 3. He might be | 3. They might be |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I might have been | 1. We might have been |
| 2. You might have been | 2. You might have been |
| 3. He might have been | 3. They might have been |

IMPERATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

2. Be, *or* do thou be2. Be, *or* do ye or you be

INFINITIVES

Present, To be*Present-Perfect*, To have been

PARTICIPLES

Present, Being*Past*, Been*Past-Perfect*, Having been

The singular form "thou art," etc., is now used only in acts of worship, or on other solemn occasions. In ordinary discourse, in addressing one person, we say "you are," "you were," etc., the meaning being singular, but the form plural.

LESSON 71

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *LOVE*

1. Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

*Singular**Plural*

1. I love

1. We love

2. You love

2. You love

3. He loves

3. They love

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE

1. I have loved

1. We have loved

2. You have loved

2. You have loved

3. He has loved

3. They have loved

PAST TENSE

1. I loved

1. We loved

2. You loved

2. You loved

3. He loved

3. They loved

PAST-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I had loved | 1. We had loved |
| 2. You had loved | 2. You had loved |
| 3. He had loved | 3. They had loved |

FUTURE TENSE

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I shall love | 1. We shall love |
| 2. You will love | 2. You will love |
| 3. He will love | 3. They will love |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall have loved | 1. We shall have loved |
| 2. You will have loved | 2. You will have loved |
| 3. He will have loved | 3. They will have loved |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I love | 1. If we love |
| 2. If you love | 2. If you love |
| 3. If he love | 3. If they love |

POTENTIAL MODE

PRESENT TENSE

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| 1. I may love | 1. We may love |
| 2. You may love | 2. You may love |
| 3. He may love | 3. They may love |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may have loved | 1. We may have loved |
| 2. You may have loved | 2. You may have loved |
| 3. He may have loved | 3. They may have loved |

PAST TENSE

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I might love | 1. We might love |
| 2. You might love | 2. You might love |
| 3. He might love | 3. They might love |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might have loved | 1. We might have loved |
| 2. You might have loved | 2. You might have loved |
| 3. He might have loved | 3. They might have loved |

IMPERATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 2. Love, <i>or</i> love thou | 2. Love, <i>or</i> love you |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|

INFINITIVES

Present, To love*Present-Perfect*, To have loved

PARTICIPLES

Present, Loving*Past*, Loved*Past-Perfect*, Having loved

2. Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

*Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I am loved | 1. We are loved |
| 2. You are loved | 2. You are loved |
| 3. He is loved | 3. They are loved |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I have been loved | 1. We have been loved |
| 2. You have been loved | 2. You have been loved |
| 3. He has been loved | 3. They have been loved |

PAST TENSE

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I was loved | 1. We were loved |
| 2. You were loved | 2. You were loved |
| 3. He was loved | 3. They were loved |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I had been loved | 1. We had been loved |
| 2. You had been loved | 2. You had been loved |
| 3. He had been loved | 3. They had been loved |

FUTURE TENSE

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I shall be loved | 1. We shall be loved |
| 2. You will be loved | 2. You will be loved |
| 3. He will be loved | 3. They will be loved |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been loved | 1. We shall have been loved |
| 2. You will have been loved | 2. You will have been loved |
| 3. He will have been loved | 3. They will have been loved |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I be loved | 1. If we be loved |
| 2. If you be loved | 2. If you be loved |
| 3. If he be loved | 3. If they be loved |

PAST TENSE

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 1. If I were loved, <i>or</i> were I loved | 1. If we were loved |
| 2. If you were loved, <i>or</i> were you loved | 2. If you were loved |
| 3. If he were loved, <i>or</i> were he loved | 3. If they were loved |

POTENTIAL MODE

PRESENT TENSE

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I may be loved | 1. We may be loved |
| 2. You may be loved | 2. You may be loved |
| 3. He may be loved | 3. They may be loved |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I may have been loved | 1. We may have been loved |
| 2. You may have been loved | 2. You may have been loved |
| 3. He may have been loved | 3. They may have been loved |

PAST TENSE

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I might be loved | 1. We might be loved |
| 2. You might be loved | 2. You might be loved |
| 3. He might be loved | 3. They might be loved |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been loved | 1. We might have been loved |
| 2. You might have been loved | 2. You might have been loved |
| 3. He might have been loved | 3. They might have been loved |

IMPERATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 2. Be loved, <i>or</i> be thou loved | 2. Be loved, <i>or</i> be you loved |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|

INFINITIVES

Present, To be loved*Present-Perfect*, To have been loved

PARTICIPLES

Present
Being loved

Past
Loved

Past-Perfect
Having been loved

LESSON 72

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *SEE*

Write the conjugation of the verb *see*, active and passive.

LESSON 73

VERBS: REVIEW

1. The Synopsis of a verb is the orderly arrangement of its modes and tenses in one person and number (usually the first person singular).

2. Give the synopsis of the verb *write* in the active voice.

3. Give the synopsis of the verb *write* in the passive voice.

4. Write a synopsis of *choose*, progressive form.

5. Write a synopsis of *try*, emphatic form.

LESSON 74

SHALL AND WILL

1. In declarative sentences.

The primary meaning of *will* is purpose or determination, and the primary meaning of *shall* is obligation. *Shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third simply foretell. *Will* in the first person expresses determination. *Shall* in the second and third persons means an obligation not controlled by the subject, but by some external influence. "He shall not come," means that he is controlled by some one.

2. In interrogative sentences.

In questions, *shall* is always used in the first person, and in the second and the third we use the form expected in the answer. "Shall you be at home?" expects the answer "I shall." "Will you stay?" expects the answer "I will." "Shall he be brought back?" expects the answer "He shall," but "Will he be punished?" expects the answer "He will."

3. *Should* and *would*, the past tenses of *shall* and *will*, follow the same general rules as those governing the use of *shall* and *will*. *Would* is often used to express a strong wish; as, "Would that I were at home."

4. In these sentences, *shall*, *will*, *should*, and *would* are used correctly. Study each sentence carefully, and give the reason for the form used.

1. I shall enjoy the visit.
2. I will go in spite of opposition.
3. He will come of his own accord.
4. When shall we three meet again?
5. Shall I help you to tea?
6. You shall have my place.
7. Thou shalt not steal.

8. I will bring you something. (A promise.)
9. I should like to come every day.
10. You should mend your own clothes.
11. If he should call, tell him to wait.
12. He should not go out to-night.
13. I would go, if I were able.
14. We told him to stay, but he would come.
15. Shall we hear a good concert if we go?
16. Should we hear a good lecture if we should go?
17. Shall you accept? I shall.
18. Will you accept? I will.

LESSON 75

SHALL AND WILL — Continued

1. Give the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair:

1. { Will you call at the office?
{ Shall you call at the office?
2. { He will go home.
{ He shall go home.
3. { You should be ashamed to say such a thing. (Did
you say it?)
{ You would be ashamed to say such a thing. (Did
you say it?)
4. { Would you go if you were in my place?
{ Should you go if you were in my place?
5. { Every man would leave a good name behind him.
{ Every man should leave a good name behind him.

2. Select the correct word:

1. I (shall, will) leave before summer.
2. You (shall, will) be rewarded for your trouble.
3. If we do wrong, we (will, shall) be punished.
4. Do you think I (will, shall) be in time?

5. I suppose that you (will, shall) be here to-morrow.
6. If you (will, shall) lend me the money, I (will, shall) be obliged.
7. If you (would, should) lend me the money, I (would, should) be obliged.

In this sentence, *would* should be used where *will* should be used in the 6th.

8. He knew who (would, should) betray him.
9. I (will, shall) pay him to-day, if he (will, shall) demand it.
10. I (would, should) pay him to-day, if he (should, would) demand it.
11. He is afraid that he (will, shall) not succeed.
12. He was afraid that he (would, should) not succeed.

LESSON 76

ANALYSIS AND DIAGRAMING

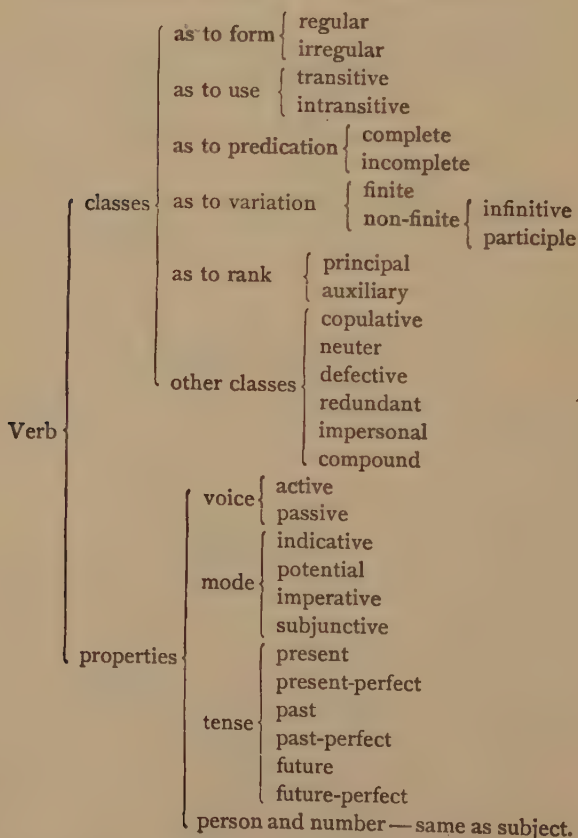
Analyze the sentences having odd numbers, diagram those having even numbers, and parse the words in italics:

1. *Where* are those flowers, so many and fair?
2. *Me* restored he to mine office.
3. On the grassy bank stood a tall, waving ash, sound to the very top.
4. A great man is always *willing* to be *little*.
5. Too many men who have not learned *to follow* want to lead.
6. The Ram's Horn (name of a paper) says "A self-made man likes *to boast* of his job."
7. A mountain rises there, *called* Ida, joyous once with leaves and streams, deserted now *like* a forbidden thing.
8. Some poets, before beginning to write a poem, wait *to be inspired*.
9. A sorrow shared is halved; a joy *divided* is doubled.

LESSON 77

OUTLINE OF VERB

1. The following is the outline of the verb :



2. Using the outline just given, write a composition on "The Verb."

LESSON 78

ADVERBS

1. A Modal Adverb is an adverb that describes the manner in which the assertion is made; that is, whether it is made affirmatively, negatively, certainly, doubtfully, etc.

2. Modal adverbs are divided into :

1. Those of reasoning ; as, hence, therefore.
2. Those of affirmation ; as, certainly, indeed.
3. Those of negation ; as, not, nowise.
4. Those of doubt ; as, possibly, perhaps.

Note that a modal adverb is not an adverb of manner. A modal adverb describes the manner of making the assertion, and an adverb of manner describes the manner of performing the action. In "They certainly write well," *certainly* is a modal adverb, and *well* is an adverb of manner.

The adverbs *yes*, *no*, *amen*, etc., are sometimes said to modify an entire sentence or discourse.

When *yes*, *no*, *yea*, and *nay* are used in responding to a question, they are sometimes called Responsives.

3. A Relative Adverb is a conjunctive adverb joining an adjective clause to the independent clause ; as,

1. This is the house where (in which) Burns was born.
2. Youth is the time when the seeds of character are sown.
3. The bandits were driven to the mountains whence they came.

Notice that a relative adverb is equivalent to a prepositional phrase having a relative pronoun for the object.

4. Adverbs are sometimes used independently ; as,

1. Well, what did he say?
2. Now, Barabbas was a robber.

These may be called introductory words.

5. Some words, usually adverbs, may become nouns ;
as,

1. Since *then*, he has lived in Europe.
2. Until *now*, we have been satisfied.

6. The words *to-day*, *to-night*, *to-morrow*, etc., are frequently called adverbs, but they are nouns in the objective case without a governing word.

In these sentences, compare the first two with the last two :

1. He arrived Thursday.
3. He arrived yesterday.
2. They will come next week.
4. They will come to-morrow.

If *Thursday* and *week* are nouns in the objective case, why not *yesterday* and *to-morrow*?

7. An adverb sometimes modifies a phrase or a preposition.

1. The sun shines even on the wicked.
Even modifies the phrase.

on	wicked
/ even	

2. The speaker went entirely beyond
the limits of courtesy.
Entirely modifies the preposition.

entirely	beyond	limits

8. In each of these sentences, tell whether the adverb modifies the phrase or the preposition.

1. He threw the ball almost across the river.
2. The guard stood just below the gate.
3. The dogs were beaten nearly to death.
4. Fools judge only by events.

A little study of these sentences will enable us to decide in each instance whether the adverb modifies the phrase or the preposition. Take the first: suppose we say that *almost* modifies the phrase. Now parse *across*, and you will see that it does not show the relation of *river* to *threw*, because the ball did not get across ; it went nearly

across. *Almost* modifies *across*. Now take the fourth sentence: let us say that *only* modifies the phrase, and then parse *by*, and we see that *by* does show the relation of *events* to *judge*; if they judge only by events, they judge by events. *Only* modifies the phrase.

9. Give the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair :

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. { He appeared willing.
He appeared willingly. | 3. { He came tardy.
He came tardily. |
| 2. { Why stand we here idle, waiting ?
Why stand we here idly waiting ? | 4. { Ralph came late.
Ralph came lately. |

LESSON 79

ADVERBS — Continued. — DIAGRAMING

1. Select the correct word :

1. He appeared (handsome, handsomely) in his new costume.
2. The moon rose (clear, clearly).
3. The house seems (comfortable, comfortably).
4. They lived (comfortable, comfortably) in that house.
5. Open your hand (wide, widely).
6. The tree grew (crooked, crookedly).

2. Tell whether each phrase is an adjective or an adverb :

1. I am at liberty to go.
2. I am at home.
3. The merchant is without money.
4. Violets and dandelions are in the field.
5. Violets and dandelions are in bloom.
6. The lark is on the tree.
7. The lark is on the wing.
8. He stood forth in his strength.

3. Use each of these verbs in a sentence, and after each verb use an adjective or an adverb :

prove remain sound grow

4. *This* and *that* should not be used as adverbs.

"The pencil was about this long" is incorrect because *this* is used as a modifier of *long*. Say "so long."

5. Notice these sentences :

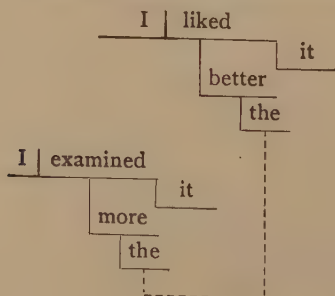
1. George writes as well as reads.
2. George writes as well as he reads.

In the first, "as well as" is a conjunction, but in the second each word should be parsed separately.

6. The word *the* is sometimes a conjunctive adverb ;
as,

The more I examined it, the better I liked it.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, of which *I* is the subject, "liked — examined it" is the complete predicate, *liked* is the simple predicate, having *it* for the object and modified by *better*, an adverb of degree; *better* is modified by *the*, an adverb of degree; *the* is modified by "the more I examined it," a dependent adverb clause of degree, of which *I* is the subject, "examined it the more" is the complete predicate, *examined* is the simple predicate, having *it* for the object, and modified by *more*, an adverb of degree; *more* is modified by *the*, a conjunctive adverb used as the connective.



7. Diagram these sentences :

1. The soldiers as well as the sailors enjoyed the game.
2. The soldiers enjoyed the game as well as the sailors.
3. As soon as the weather gets warm, the work will begin.
4. The older we grow, the humbler we become.

LESSON 80

POSITION OF ADVERBS

1. Improve the location of the adverb in each sentence, and give reasons for the change :

1. Several young men came who nearly looked alike.
2. You seem clearly to understand the question.
3. The young man is considered generally incompetent.
4. I forgot to sign my name to a letter once.
5. It is rather an unpleasant task.
6. It may be necessary to entirely remodel it.

2. Parse the adverbs in these sentences :

1. I am as I always was.
2. How strangely the past is peeping over the shoulders
of the present.
3. A great many birds were seen in the forest.
4. They are almost all gone now.
5. Times will surely be better soon.
6. This is the place where he is buried.

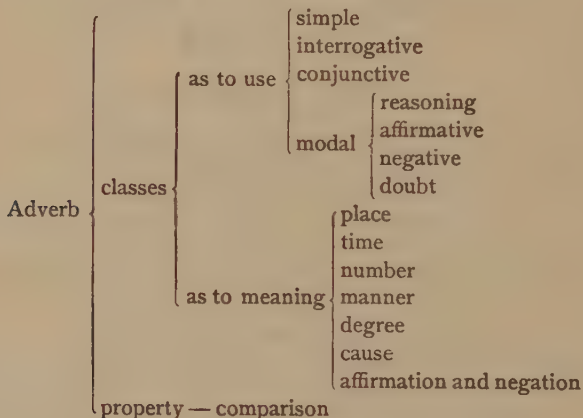
3. Make a sentence containing —

1. An adverb modifying a phrase.
2. An adverb modifying a preposition.
3. *The* as a conjunctive adverb.
4. *Where* as an interrogative adverb in a direct question.
5. *Where* as an interrogative adverb in an indirect question.
6. *Where* as a conjunctive adverb, joining an adverb clause to an independent clause.
7. *Where* as a relative adverb.

LESSON 81

OUTLINE OF ADVERB

1. The following is an outline of the adverb:



2. Write a composition on "The Adverb," using the preceding outline.

LESSON 82

PREPOSITIONS

1. The Latin preposition *per* should be used with Latin nouns, but not with English nouns.

Per annum, per capita, per cent, etc., are all right, but it is better not to say *per year, per head, etc.* Say "one thousand dollars a year," "ten cents a pound," etc.

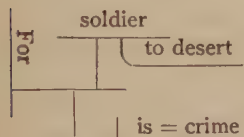
2. *After, before, ere, since, till, and until* are often prepositions, not conjunctive adverbs.

Some say these words are prepositions when followed by a word, but are conjunctive adverbs when followed by a clause. Let us examine these sentences:

1. He came after school.
2. He came after school had closed.

Since *after* seems to have the same meaning in these two sentences, and since it is surely a preposition in the first, it may be considered a preposition in the second. From this point of view the clause "school had closed" is a noun clause, used as the object of *after*.

3. *For* is sometimes used as a sort of introductory preposition; as, "For a soldier to desert is a crime."



The object of *for* is "a soldier to desert."

4. Notice this sentence:

He came as a delegate.

In this sentence some say *as* is a preposition having *delegate* for its object, but it is better to consider *as* simply an introductory word and parse *delegate* as the attribute complement, nominative, agreeing with *he*. *As* may be omitted without changing the meaning: He came a delegate. In "His reputation as a teacher is excellent" *teacher* is in the possessive case, in apposition with *his*.

5. The preposition is sometimes incorrectly omitted; as, "The house was the height of that tree."

As the sentence reads, *height* is an attribute complement and must, therefore, mean the same thing as the subject *house*; but we know this is not the case. The sentence should read "The house was of the height of that tree." Other examples are,

1. There is no use trying.
2. What use is this to him?
3. He is worthy better treatment.

6. Point out the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair:

1. { He had a taste of tobacco.
He had a taste for tobacco.
2. { His farm is the south side of the river.
His farm is on the south side of the river.
3. { The merchant divided the money between his boys.
The merchant divided the money among his boys.
4. { He jumped in the pond.
He jumped into the pond.

7. Write a sentence in which —

1. A preposition is improperly omitted.
2. *As* is used in such a way as to be called a preposition by some authors.

LESSON 83

PREPOSITIONS: PARSING

1. Parse the prepositions in these sentences:

1. Careless people speak before they think.
2. There is keen joy in being successful.
3. The night is dark, and I am far from home.
4. We must move from where we are.
5. No one can disgrace us but ourselves.
6. You cannot reap until after you have sown.
7. Over the fence is out.
8. Stay till after supper.
9. Instead of complaining of the thorns among the roses,
we should be thankful that there are roses among
the thorns.
10. His honesty was above suspicion.
11. The gates are of pearl.
12. Except that I have a cold, I am in my usual health.
13. Out of debt is out of misery.

2. Of the sentences in paragraph 1, diagram the 9th, 12th, and 13th.

LESSON 84

CONJUNCTIONS

1. Coördinate Conjunctions are divided into Copulatives, Alternatives, Adversatives, and Illatives.

2. Copulative Conjunctions are conjunctions that simply couple or join ; as, both, and, etc.

3. Alternative Conjunctions are conjunctions denoting separation, or a choice between two ; as, or, nor, either, neither, etc.

Alternatives are sometimes called Disjunctives.

4. Adversative Conjunctions are conjunctions denoting something opposed or adverse to what has been said ; as, but, still, yet, etc.

5. Illative Conjunctions are conjunctions denoting effect or consequence ; as, therefore, hence, etc.

6. *Or* is not a connective when it introduces an appositive or explanatory word.

1. His money or his life was demanded. (A connective.)
2. Nitrous-oxide, or laughing-gas, produces insensibility.

In the second sentence *or* is merely introductory, and may be omitted. In such sentences *or* should be preceded by a comma, but not all authors do so.

7. The words, phrases, and clauses connected by a coördinate conjunction should be similar in form.

1. The field is large and fertile ; not, The field is large and full of fertility.
2. He obeyed cheerfully and promptly ; not, He obeyed cheerfully and with promptness.
3. They came to see and hear ; not, They came for seeing and to hear.

8. Improve these sentences :

1. Like signs give plus, but unlike signs will produce minus.
2. They lived together in peace and quietly.
3. They did not remain to pray, but for scoffing.
4. Great and full of power art Thou, O Lord !
5. Faithfully and with earnestness he tried to perform the task.

When verbs are connected by coördinate conjunctions, they generally have the same form of conjugation, and are in the same mode and tense. When different modes and tenses are connected, it is usually better to repeat the subject ; as, "He went, but (he) may return."

9. The following are models for parsing conjunctions :

1. If he succeeds, I shall be surprised.

If is a conjunction, subordinate, connecting the two clauses.

2. Mary and Martha were sisters.

And is a conjunction, coördinate, copulative, connecting *Mary* and *Martha*.

3. The teacher is young but experienced.

But is a conjunction, coördinate, adversative, connecting *young* and *experienced*.

10. Parse the conjunctions in these sentences :

1. He looks as if he were sick.
2. The Helvetian Republic, or Switzerland, has given many proofs of its attachment to liberty.
3. The merchant is sick ; therefore his store is closed.
4. Come weal or want, come good or ill.
5. Many meet the gods, but few salute them.
6. Few and short were the prayers we said.
7. Nothing is more simple than greatness ; hence, to be simple is to be great.

11. Of the preceding sentences, diagram the 2d, 3d, and 7th.

LESSON 85

CORRELATIVES

1. Correlatives are two conjunctions, two adverbs, or an adverb and a conjunction that are used in pairs. The following are the principal correlatives:

As — as. He is as old as I am.

As — so. As he thinks, so he speaks.

Both — and. The musician both plays and sings.

Either — or. Either Spain or Cuba was to blame.

Neither — nor. The count is neither rich nor handsome.

Not only — but also. The climate is not only healthful, but also pleasant.

Not only — but. The climate is not only healthful, but pleasant.

So — as. He is not so old as I am.

So — that. It was so cold that the mercury froze.

The — the. The higher the mountain, the colder the atmosphere.

Whether — or. Whether we shall go by train or boat is uncertain.

2. Care should be taken to select proper correlatives, and to place them where they belong.

Notice the following:

1. This man neither has money nor land.

The two emphatic or contrasted words of this sentence are *money* and *land*. *Neither* should be next to one of these words, and *nor* next to the other; as, "This man has neither money nor land."

When "either — or," "neither — nor," "not only — but also," "not only — but," are used as correlatives, there are always two similar words or expressions that are contrasted; that is, two nouns, two adjectives, two verbs, etc. The first part of the correlative should precede one of these words, and the last part of the correlative should precede the other.

2. That boy will neither play nor study.

This is correct because *neither* precedes one of the contrasted words (*play*), and *nor* precedes the other (*study*).

3. He not only understands French, but also German.

Since the two contrasted words are *French* and *German*, the sentence should read "He understands not only French, but also German."

3. Study these sentences, and correct where necessary :

1. He was not only considered a statesman, but also an orator.
2. Some nouns are used either in the singular or in the plural.
3. He is not qualified for either teaching mathematics or language.
4. She is as old as I am, but not so tall.

As and *as* are the proper correlatives in an affirmative sentence, and *so* and *as* in a negative sentence.

5. Wood is not as durable as iron.
6. We not only visited New York, but also Philadelphia.
7. Neither the foreman or his assistant had seen it.
8. It will not merely interest the children, but also the parents.
9. You are mistaken not only in your inferences, but also in your facts.

4. *Nor*, in the ordinary sentence, should be used with no negative except *neither*. "I cannot read nor write" is incorrect. It should be "I cannot read or write."

Either *nor* or *neither* can be used with *not*, if the following proposition is inverted ; as, "I cannot read, neither (nor) can I write."

5. In each of these sentences insert "either—or":

1. They spend their time in reading or writing.
2. He reads books or magazines.
3. He reads books or writes letters.

6. Insert "neither — nor" :

1. I do not consider him just or politic.
2. I was not favorably impressed with his appearance or his behavior.

7. Insert "not only — but also" :

1. They traveled in England and in Scotland.
2. He was arrested and convicted.
3. He reads German and speaks it.
4. He reads German and French.

LESSON 86

CORRELATIVES — Continued. — DIAGRAMING

1. When both parts of a correlative are conjunctions they should be parsed together.

He was noted not only for his oratorical knowledge, but also for his practical skill.

He	was	noted
	not only but also	for
	knowledge	skill

2. The comparative degree, and the words *other*, *rather*, *else*, and *otherwise* are generally followed by *than*.

3. *As* should not be used to introduce a noun clause used as the object.

"I do not know as I shall go" is incorrect. *That* should be used instead of *as*.

4. *But what* should not be used together.

"I do not doubt but what he is honest" is incorrect. *But that* should be used; sometimes only *that*. Is there any difference between "I do not doubt but that he is honest," and "I do not doubt that he is honest"?

5. When two or more connected terms refer jointly to another, each should make good sense with it.

1. The moon is nearer but not so brilliant as the sun.

The two terms "is nearer" and "not so brilliant" refer jointly to "as the sun," but since "is nearer" will not make good sense when used with "as the sun" the sentence is incorrect. It should be "The moon is nearer than the sun, but not so brilliant."

2. I never have and never will do it.

Since *have* will not make sense with *do*, the sentence should read "I never have done it, and never will."

6. Correct the errors in these sentences:

1. Gold is heavier, but not so useful, as iron.
2. February is not so long, but colder than March.
3. February is colder, but not so long as March.
4. He ought and will attend to the matter.
5. This house is preferable and cheaper than the other.
6. I do not know as I shall be present.
7. The visitor was no other but the Colonel.
8. Such behavior is nothing else but disgraceful.
9. There is no doubt but what the game will be close.
10. This is different but better than the old.

7. Notice this sentence:

Gold is heavier than iron, but not so useful.

Supplying the understood words we have "Gold is heavier than iron is heavy, but it is not so useful as iron is useful."

8. After correcting the sentences in paragraph 6, diagram those having even numbers.

9. After the sentences in paragraph 3, lesson 85, are corrected, diagram those having odd numbers.

LESSON 87

SENTENCES FOR CORRECTION

In these sentences, make the corrections necessary :

Study the entire sentence before deciding whether it is correct or not. The error may be in the connective, the pronoun, the verb, or some other part of speech, or it may be in the arrangement of the words.

1. Flatterers flatter so long, and no longer, than they have expectation of gain.
2. I desire to know if he is going or not.
3. San Francisco is the west side of the Rocky Mountains.
4. I doubt (if, whether) that statesman can be depended upon.
5. Man is something else (besides, than) flesh and blood.

Besides means in addition to. If man is flesh and blood and something more, *besides* is the correct word ; but if man is entirely something else, not flesh and blood at all, *than* is the correct word.

6. We should give the pupils something else (besides, than) mere knowledge.
7. Difficulties are overcome by something else (besides, than) simply wishing.
8. Brave soldiers are made of something else (besides, than) bright uniforms.
9. Who could do otherwise but accept such an offer?
10. Why don't you do like I do?
11. I can find neither him nor his brother.
12. It is as cold, if not colder, than any day last winter.
13. The junior classes are, if not better, at least as well taught as the senior classes.
14. Neither you nor anybody else ever saw me do it.
15. Each one of us has as much as he can do.
16. The American and European inhabitants seem to be on an equality.
17. No American writer is so concise as Emerson.
18. Such a clatter of sounds indicates rage.
19. This addition of words have been made by commerce.
20. And many a steed in his stable were seen.

LESSON 88

WORDS AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

1. Since it is the use of a word in a sentence that determines its part of speech, it follows that many words may be used as different parts of speech.

2. Write a sentence using *before* —

1. As a preposition.

2. As an adverb.

3. Make a sentence using *that* —

1. As an adjective.

2. As an adjective pronoun

3. As a relative pronoun.

4. As a conjunction.

5. As an introductory word introducing a noun clause.

4. Make a sentence using *but* —

1. As a conjunction.

2. As a preposition.

3. As a relative pronoun.

5. Make a sentence using *what* —

1. As an interrogative adjective.

2. As an interrogative pronoun.

3. As a double relative.

6. Use each of these words as three different parts of speech :

stone

down

sound

battle

last

second

match

iron

LESSON 89

PARSING

Parse the words in italics :

1. Look *before* you leap.

2. Have you seen him *before* ?

3. It is believed *that* the prisoner told the truth.
4. The rose *that* all are praising is not the rose for me.
5. They came, *but* they did not remain.
6. He cares for nothing *but* money.
7. There is no heroic poem in the world *but* is at bottom a biography.
8. We have not heard from them *since* yesterday.
9. *Since* you are here, you might remain.
10. Anybody *else* would consent.
11. Where *else* could he go?
12. I have no tears, *else* would I weep for thee.
13. The room *above* is *but* a closet.
14. The *strata* that contain coal belong to the tertiary era.
15. The house was made *large*.
16. They made the house *large*.
17. Much learning hath made *thee* mad.
18. I had a dream that was not *all* a dream.
19. He is a *little* better. (*Little* is a noun.)
20. He is every *inch* a king.

LESSON 90

AMBIGUOUS SENTENCES

1. An Ambiguous Sentence is a sentence that may convey more than one meaning ; as, "And thus the son the fervent sire addressed."

In the sentence just given, either *son* or *sire* may be the subject or the object. The ambiguity may be removed by changing the order of the words ; as, "The son addressed the fervent sire thus," or "The fervent sire addressed the son thus."

Sometimes the ambiguity may be removed by changing the punctuation ; as, "Tell him, if he is in the parlor, I do not wish to see him." Change to "Tell him, if he is in the parlor I do not wish to see him." (Notice difference in meaning of the last two sentences.)

2. Give the different meanings of each sentence, and then change so that each shall have but one meaning.

1. And all the air a solemn stillness holds.
2. The Romans understood liberty at least as well as we.
3. It was my intention to begin the work every day this week.
4. The child screamed the moment he saw the dog trembling from head to foot.
5. The boy promised his father that he would pay his debts.

Use direct quotation in the above sentence.

6. I guarantee to sell a better hat than any competitor for less money.
7. A squirrel can climb a tree quicker than a boy.
8. He ordered a light supper room for himself and his dog provided for in the stable.
9. I heard all you said very plainly.
10. The boy says he knows more than his teacher.
11. He wished for nothing more than a dictionary.
12. I was not aware that you had been away until yesterday.
13. I think you will find my Latin exercise at least as good as his.
14. Ignorance is the mother of fear as well as admiration.
15. He liked to hear her talk better than any of her associates.

3. By changing the punctuation, give each of these sentences two meanings:

1. The boy says the paper was lost in the woods.
2. Why will you go?
3. Paul was an energetic man in deceiving the Jews he was never engaged.
4. My brothers Henry and Joseph will defend you.
5. Mary, Martha, and Lucy are attending college.
6. The prisoner said the judge was guilty.

LESSON 91

REVIEW

1. Improve the order of the words in these sentences:

1. The boy only ate one apple.
2. The lights were seen to suddenly go out.
3. Here and there we could see men driving cattle on horseback.
4. They were friends of my brother who came to visit us.
5. We heard that some men were hunting elephants from Baltimore.
6. Rich or poor, you have always been a true friend to me.
7. Sir Isaac Newton's attention was principally given to mathematics.
8. The steamer from Liverpool is soon expected to arrive.
9. He received a reward for his bravery and the praise of all.

2. Give the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair:

1. { Though he was an angel, I should not believe him.
 { Though he were an angel, I should not believe him.
2. { I do not know but that he is wrong.
 { I do not know that he is wrong.
3. { She sings as well as plays.
 { She sings as well as she plays.
4. { The tailor and the clothier must be consulted.
 { The tailor and clothier must be consulted.
5. { She has done her work.
 { She has her work done.

3. Correct where necessary:

1. Distinguish between the nominative and objective.
2. Neither the boy nor girl were present.
3. That word is either a verb or adjective.
4. He knows nothing but what he has heard.
5. This is neither consistent with logic nor history.
6. Every tale is not believed that is told.

LESSON 92

DIAGRAMING AND PARSING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. Where he went, *what* he did, or how he finally perished is entirely unknown.
2. The condor is the largest, swiftest, and most tireless of birds of prey.
3. Milton said that no one *could write* epics that did not live *epics*.
4. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
5. *Bright* the lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men.
6. He was a short distance behind us.
7. Pleasantly rose, next morn, the sun, on the village of Grand Pré.
8. Now is the winter of our discontent made glorious by the sun of York.
9. By the way, have you heard the news?
10. He loves not other lands so much *as that* of his adoption.
11. The earth rings *hollow* from *below*.
12. Alas! We think not that we daily see
About our hearths angels that are *to be*,
Or may be if they *will*.
13. Trust no future, however pleasant.

LESSON 93

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Analyze or diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. Then out spake brave Horatius, the captain of the gate :
"To every man upon this earth death cometh, soon or late."

2. The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all but him had fled.
3. There in his noisy mansion, *skilled to rule*,
The village master taught his little school.
4. The world will little note nor long remember what we
say here, but it can never forget *what* they did here.
5. Where there's a will, there's a way.
6. Teach me to feel another's woe,
To hide the fault I see. (*Me* is not the object of *teach*.)
7. He went *quite* to the top.
8. Before men made us *citizens*, great nature made us men.
9. He died a soldier's death.
10. 'Tis as easy now for the *heart* to be true,
As for grass to be green, or skies to be blue.
11. Those lectures of *Lowell's* had a great influence with
me.
12. He that loses his conscience has nothing left that is
worth keeping.
13. We know that he is convinced that it is wrong.
14. It made and preserved us a *nation*.

LESSON 94

CHOICE OF WORDS

From each parenthesis select the proper word, and explain:

1. I saw a lady that I supposed to be (she, her).
2. Can you not prepare your lessons better if you (try, tried)?
3. Could you not prepare your lessons better if you (try, tried)?
4. (Who, whom) did you say you went to visit?
5. Neither the time nor the place of Homer's birth (is, are) known.
6. But for me, he (would, should) have fallen.
7. I told him that if he went to-morrow I (shall, should) go with him.

8. I expect he (has come, will come).
 9. You (shall, will) not go if I can prevent it.
 10. Where (shall, will) we find the entrance to the building?
 11. I expected (to be, to have been) in Richmond by this time.
 12. Battles are fought with other weapons (than, besides) popguns.
 13. Keep (off, off of) the grass.
 14. I am (real, really) glad to see you.
 15. Let none touch it but (they, them) who are clean.
 16. (Who, whom) do people say won first place in the contest?
 17. The pen is a mightier weapon than (sword, the sword).
 18. Though he has been rather unfortunate in business, he still has (few, a few) dollars.
 19. He who is ungrateful has (few, a few) friends.
 20. I (built, have built) three houses last year.
 21. The guidance of a father as well as the love of a mother (is, are) wanting.
 22. I wish that he (was, were) wealthy.
 23. (Us, we) girls are getting up a tennis club.
- "Are getting up" is a compound verb.

LESSON 95

CHOICE OF WORDS

From each parenthesis select the proper word, and explain:

1. Plato believed that the soul (was, is) immortal.
2. The house stood on (rather a, a rather) narrow strip of land.
3. You might come for at least (a few, a couple of) days.
4. He (who, whom) you thought guilty is innocent.
5. (He, him) (who, whom) you thought was guilty I believe to be innocent.
6. (Whom, who) do you wish to see?
7. All work and no play (makes, make) Jack a dull boy.

8. We did not tell her (who, whom) the letter was from.
9. That is one of the best books that (was, were) ever written.
10. She is one of the writers who (is, are) destined to be immortal.
11. The number (was, were) very large.
12. A number of the men (was, were) afraid to venture.
13. A ray or two (wanders, wander) in the darkness.
14. The fugitive threatened to shoot (whomever, whoever) tried to stop him.
15. I have no other hope (but, than) this.
16. Will you permit my friend and (I, me) to call on you?
17. When he met friend or foe, he always treated (him, them) kindly.
18. Boys, let every one of you take (his, their) place.

LESSON 96

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Analyze these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. We love the home *where* we were born.
2. The train was behind time.
3. *Since then*, he has been a policeman.
4. *When* he is coming, is what I want to know.
5. "Good morning, friend Ant," said the grasshopper.
6. "Good morning, neighbor *Grasshopper*," replied the ant.
7. Out of sight is out of mind.
8. The Indians came in Indian file.
9. He caught the dog *killing* a chicken.
10. This mournful truth is everywhere confessed,
Slow rises worth by poverty *depressed*.

By poetic license *slow* is used for *slowly*.

11. If you wish to enrich a person, study not to increase his stores, but to diminish his desires.
12. The fat of the body is fuel *laid* away for use.

13. I have seen yon weary, winter sun
Twice forty times return.
14. The wood of the silver fir is not much used as timber.
15. Who, looking backward from his manhood's prime,
Sees not the specter of his misspent time ?
16. The gifts that we have, heaven lends for right using,
And not for ignoring, and not for abusing.

LESSON 97

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Analyze or diagram and parse the words in italics :

1. We sat around the fire *telling* stories of the past and *laying* schemes for the future.
2. Up to the clouds the lark has sprung, still *trilling* as he flies.
3. The books that help you most are those that make you *think* most.
4. He that was dead came forth bound hand and foot.
5. Stormed at with shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well.
6. Gayly chattering to the *clattering*
Of the brown nuts downward pattering,
Leap the squirrels red and gray.
7. Our great business in life is not to see what lies dimly
at a distance, but to do what lies clearly at hand.
8. Cowper's fame as a poet is equaled by his excellence as
a man.
9. When thieves fall out, honest men come by their rights.
10. We soon came to the place *where* the cliff rises per-
pendicularly out of the water.
11. A great many houses are *to let* in the city.
12. The fire is *out*.
13. The fire went *out*.
14. The dog went *out*.
15. The price of wisdom is above rubies.
16. All those in favor of the motion say "aye."

LESSON 98

DIAGRAMING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. *The* higher a bird flies, the more out of danger it is.
2. Genius is an immense capacity for taking trouble.
3. He comes with a careless "How d'ye do,"
And seats *himself* in my elbow chair.
4. It was a Spartan law that a soldier should die but not yield.
5. There are times in the history of men and nations when they stand so near the veil that separates mortals from immortals, time from eternity, and men from their God, that they can almost hear the breathings, and feel the pulsations of the heart of the Infinite.
6. A depth of thirty feet of soil has covered *up* the Rome of ancient days, so that it lies like the dead corpse of a giant, decaying for centuries, with no survivor mighty *enough* to bury it, until the dust of all those years has gathered slowly over its recumbent form and made a casual sepulcher.
7. Straight and strong and magnificently plumed, the palms rose to a height of seventy or eighty feet.
8. The highest fame was never reached except by what was aimed above it.
9. It is always safe to learn, *even* from our enemies ; seldom safe to instruct, *even* our friends.
10. He is said to have succeeded.
11. The ruined chimney shows where the old house stood.
12. Trying to do right is *doing* right.
13. The *moving* bushes frightened us.
14. The *moving* of the bushes frightened us.
15. The bushes, *moving* near us, frightened us.
16. The bushes *moving* near us frightened us.

What difference in meaning between the last two ?

17. We have nothing to do with that question.

LESSON 99

SENTENCES TO BE CORRECTED

Correct where necessary, and parse the words in *italics* :

1. All had gone except her and I.
2. I gave it to a man who I thought was the proprietor.
3. David, the son of Jesse, was the youngest of his brothers.
4. The winter is not so severe as we expected it to be.
5. This picture of the art dealer's does not much resemble him.
6. These pictures of the art dealer are pictures of scenery in Europe.
7. A fondness for display is, of all other follies, the most ridiculous.
8. If fresh milk seems to make the child *sick*, boil it.
9. The prince, and the duke *too*, has received his allowance.
10. Trust not him whom you know is dishonest.
11. Trust not him whom you know to be dishonest.
12. Neither good nor evil come of themselves.
13. Of all poets, Longfellow is my favorite.
14. His success is neither the result of industry nor perseverance.
15. Nobody knows but my mate and I
Where our nest and nestlings lie.
16. There is a right and a wrong in them.
17. The measles is prevalent.
18. He knows as much, if not more, Greek than most graduates.
19. Both the beginning and end of the book were *missing*.
20. The council has not now, nor never had the power to pass such a law.
21. Nine tenths of all that misery is caused by idleness.
22. Probably more than one present have met with such cases.
23. If I was in his place, I should be glad to get *rid* of it.
24. There was considerable discussion as to whom should make the presentation speech.

LESSON 100

DIAGRAMING AND PARSING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. True worth is in being, not seeming ;
In doing each *day* that goes by
Some little good, not in dreaming
Of great things to do by and by.
2. My father lived at Blenheim then, yon little stream
hard by.
3. Why, I never thought of it.
4. He had not where to lay his head.
5. Gaining victory from defeat, that's the test that tries
you.
6. The knowledge of *why* they exist must be the last act
of favor which time and toil will bestow.
7. Many persons think it is not wrong to lie to escape
punishment.
8. If you do not wish a man to do a thing, get him to talk
about it.
9. There is no need that she *be* present.
10. Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime.
11. Never speak anything for truth that you believe to be
false.
12. I cannot choose but rely on my own poverty more
than on your wealth.
13. Better be a nettle in the side of your friend than his
echo. (It is better, etc.)
14. Howe'er it be, it seems to me,
'Tis only noble to be good.
15. All nature is but art unknown to thee ;
All chance (is) direction, which thou canst not see.
16. No, I will never forgive him. (*No* is simply an ex-
pletive.)
17. A knight I come, surrounded by prophets true and old.
18. It is better to make *men* good than to make them rich.

LESSON 101

SENTENCES FOR CORRECTION

Correct where necessary :

1. I never saw any one as stubborn as he.
2. He was dissatisfied with those whom circumstances had forbidden should ever be like himself.
3. He is the one who they think will make the strongest candidate.
4. None can come but they who are called.
5. Has either of your three friends arrived?
6. He used less words than the other speaker.
7. Nothing pleases me as much as mountain scenery.
8. More than one has had a hand in this affair.
9. This opinion never has and never can prevail.
10. The farmer went to his neighbor and told him that his cattle were in his field. (Use direct quotation.)
11. A gentleman entered who I afterwards found out to be the governor of the state.
12. Give him this memoranda.
13. O, no, my child, 'twas not in war,
And him that kills a single man his neighbors all abhor.
14. Although he were industrious and economical, he did not become rich.
15. He and his father too was on the lost steamer.
16. No king was ever so much beloved by his subjects as King Edward.
17. I often think of William the Conqueror, who is only another name for tyranny.
18. Travel gives a man something else besides a few sights.
19. Great benefits may be derived from reading of good books.
20. An entire month has passed since you have arrived.
21. He loves no interests but that of truth and virtue.
22. This book was purchased at Leighton's, the book-seller's.

23. You are the very person for whom I was looking.
24. I feel some better this morning. (Use *somewhat* ;
some is an adjective.)
25. I saw Mrs. Brown to-day, she that was Miss Smith.

LESSON 102

DIAGRAMING AND PARSING

Diagram these sentences, and parse the words in italics :

1. Our letters come once a month.
2. Our guide showed us where Warren is supposed to have fallen.
3. He was refused the *protection* of the law.
4. I will have the doctor sent for. (*Sent for* is objective complement.)
5. Becoming a *Quaker*, Penn incurred his father's anger.
6. I don't care a *penny* for his thoughts.
7. "Let me make the ballads of a nation," said Fletcher,
"and I care not who makes the laws."
8. So teach us to number our days that we *may apply*
our hearts unto wisdom.
9. Be noble, and the nobleness that lies
In other men, sleeping but never dead,
Will rise in majesty to thine own.
10. The deer ran through the water, and, facing about,
dashed off at full speed. (*Facing* belongs to *deer* as
the subject of *dashed*, but not as the subject of *ran*.
Make compound sentence.)
11. The class *was told* a story.
12. Some books help us to understand ourselves.
13. Henry will correspond with you from time to time.
14. It is difficult for *me* to understand him.
15. *Carve* every word before you let it fall.
16. We can never be deathless till we die.
17. Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.
18. He was too proud to beg and too honest to steal.
19. Learning makes a man fit company for himself.

SENTENCES FOR REVIEW

(To be analyzed or diagramed, at the discretion of the teacher. Words in italics require special study.)

1. It's a long lane that has no turning.
2. Reputation is *what* we are thought to be; character is what we are.
3. Never put off till to-morrow what you can do to-day.
4. Every man has a struggle in his own bosom, wins a victory, or suffers a defeat on the battle-plains of his own soul.
5. Beyond confusion, there is harmony; beyond seeming wrong, there is eternal right.
6. How often we realize the force of those beautiful words, "There's no place like home."
7. The pressing question was, how they were to subsist.
8. The sun that brief December day,
Rose cheerless over hills of gray,
And, darkly *circled*, gave at noon
A sadder sight than waning moon. — *Whittier*.
9. *To speak* more accurately, the lace is just two yards and four inches long.
10. And the whole landscape glows,
For many a shining league away
With such accumulated light
As polar lands would flash beneath a tropic day.
11. I have known greater wrongs, I that speak to you.
12. Some men are rich enough to live without work.
13. Goliath had a man *going* before him *carrying* a shield.
14. Next to being a great *poet* is the power of understanding one.
15. How high shall we build the chimney?
16. Many years before, the merchant had served as an errand boy.
17. One blast upon his bugle horn *were worth* a thousand men.
18. More than a thousand years ago there lived in the part of the world now called *France*, a famous king whose name was Charlemagne.
19. He stood before his tent, gazing intently upon the two armies now arranged in order of battle.
20. Confidence in their leader made the men fearless.

21. Every Spaniard lay down in his armor, and every horse stood saddled and bridled, ready for instant service. — *Prescott*.

22. The people, dressed in their gayest apparel, and crowned with garlands and chaplets of flowers, thronged in joyous procession to offer up their oblations and thanksgivings in the temples. — *Prescott*.

23. My doctrine is not mine, but *his* that sent me.

24. Silently, one by one, in the infinite meadows of heaven, blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels.

25. In a valley, centuries ago, grew a little fern leaf, green and tender.

26. Calm and serene as the iron walls around him, stood Regulus, the Roman.

27. That which was sown an earthly seed shall rise a heavenly flower.

28. The eighth volume of the Spectator contains, perhaps, the finest essays, both serious and playful, in the English language. — *Macaulay*.

29. The Saxons dashed to sea in their two-sailed barks, landed anywhere, and killed everything, and, *having sacrificed* in honor of their gods the tithe of their prisoners and leaving behind them the red lights of their burnings, went farther on to begin again. — *Taine*.

30. After the American Revolution, Washington's great character, sound common sense, and entirely disinterested patriotism, made him a bulwark both against anarchy and against despotism coming in the name of a safeguard against anarchy. — *Roosevelt*.

31. Many-sidedness of culture makes our vision clearer and keener in particulars. — *Lowell*.

32. The higher one climbs, the darker and gloomier and more rugged the vegetation becomes. The pine trees soon cease to follow you, the hemlocks disappear, and the balsams can go no farther. Only the hardy spruce keeps on bravely, rough and stunted, with branches matted together and pressed down flat by the weight of the winter's snow, until, finally, somewhere about the level of four thousand feet above the sea, even this bold climber gives out, and the weather-beaten rocks of the summit are clad only with mosses and alpine plants. — *Van Dyke*.

33. At length he reached to where the ravine had opened through the cliff to the amphitheater, but no traces of such an opening remained. — *Irving*.

34. We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed, by their Creator, with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. — *Declaration of Independence.*
35. The books which help you most are those which make you think the most. The hardest way of learning is by easy reading; but a great book that comes from a great thinker, — it is as a ship of thought, deep freighted with truth and beauty. — *Parker.*
36. The two most engaging powers of an author are, to make new things familiar, and familiar things new. — *Johnson.*
37. Habits are to the soul what the veins and arteries are to the blood, the courses in which it moves. — *Horace Bushnell.*
38. What an absurd thing it is to pass over all the valuable parts of a man and fix our attention on his infirmities! — *Addison.*
39. The apples that cling to the trees, the pods that hang to the lowest branches, and the seeds that the various weeds and grasses hold above the deepest snows alone make it possible for many birds to pass the winter among us. — *Burroughs.*
40. The cardinal's bower was the prettiest of the summer, built in a climbing rose which ran riot over a trellis beside a cottage door. The vine was loaded with buds just beginning to unfold their wraps to flood the place with beauty and fragrance, and the nest was so carefully tucked away behind the leaves that it could not be seen from the front. — *Olive Thorne Miller.*
41. No man, for any considerable period, can wear one face to himself and another to the multitude, without finally getting bewildered as to which may be true. — *Hawthorne.*
42. Words are like leaves, and, where they most abound,
Much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found. — *Pope.*
43. His heart was as great as the world, but there was no room in it to hold the memory of a wrong. — *Emerson.*
44. 'Twixt failure and success the points so fine
Men sometimes know not when they cross the line.
45. There is no defeat save from within.
46. Much depends upon who undertakes the work.
47. There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
The village preacher's modest mansion rose.
48. Being the last of his race, he pursued his reckless career without qualms of conscience as to those who should follow him.

49. His being called a genius does not make him one.
50. Failure after long perseverance is much grander than never to have a striving good enough to be called a failure.
51. This was not the first time that I had been refused a lodging. — *Stevenson*.
52. Better to stem with heart and hand
The roaring tide of life than lie
Unmindful, on the flowing strand,
Of God's occasions floating by;
Better with naked nerve to bear
The needles of this goading air,
Than, in the lap of sensuous ease, forego
The godlike power to do, the godlike aim to know.

LESSON 103

CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION

1. A capital letter should be used —

1. For the first letter of every sentence.
2. For the first letter of every proper noun.
3. For the first letter of every line of poetry.
4. For the first letter of every direct quotation.
5. For the first letter of every abbreviation that represents a proper noun.
6. For initials that represent proper nouns.
7. For the words *I* and *O*.
8. For the first letter of all names applied to the Deity.
9. For the first letter of a strongly personified object; as,
"Come, O life-giving Hope!"

2. The comma should be used —

1. To separate the name of the person addressed from the remainder of the sentence.
2. To separate the words of a series. The word *and* is seldom used in a series except between the last two, but if *and* is used between every two, no comma should be used.

3. To separate two adjectives modifying the same noun when *and* is omitted.
4. To show omission of a word or words, especially in writing a name and its address, and dates; as, John Wilson, Boston, Mass.; July 4, 1912.
5. To set off words, phrases, and clauses out of their natural order, and non-restrictive clauses.
6. To set off a noun clause used as attribute complement.
7. To set off a noun clause used as the subject, if it is long, or if it ends with a verb.
8. To set off parenthetical expressions.
9. To set off appositives, unless short and used as part of the name.
10. To separate the members of a compound sentence.
11. To set off participial phrases and relative clauses, when not restrictive.
12. After *as*, *to wit*, *namely*, etc., when they introduce examples or illustrations.
13. To separate pairs of words joined by conjunctions; as, "Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote."

3. A period should be used —

1. At the close of each declarative and imperative sentence.
2. After each initial.
3. After every abbreviation.

4. The interrogation point should be used at the close of every interrogative sentence.

The interrogation point is not used at the close of an indirect question; as, "He asked me if I knew who wrote the book."

5. The exclamation point should be used after interjections (except *O*), and usually at the end of exclamatory phrases and sentences.

6. The semicolon should be used —

1. Before *as, to wit, namely*, etc., when followed by examples or illustrations.
2. To separate clauses having parts separated by commas.

7. The colon is used —

1. Before a quotation, when formally introduced by *thus, as follows*, etc.
2. Usually after the complimentary address at the beginning of a letter; as, "Dear Sir: In answer to yours," etc.

8. The hyphen is used —

1. Between syllables when they are divided at the end of a line.
2. To join the parts of a compound word.

9. Quotation marks should be used to inclose words and sentences taken from another.

A quotation within a quotation is inclosed by single marks.

Notice the location of the interrogation point and quotation marks in these sentences:

1. Did you hear the boy say "Let me go" ?
2. He heard the boy say "Where am I ?"

10. Marks of parenthesis are used to inclose something incidental or explanatory, which may be omitted without destroying the sense; as —

1. Then Otis (for he was the commanding officer) gave the order to advance.
2. I censured him (do you blame me ?) for his conduct.

The marks of parenthesis indicate that the inclosed part has less connection with the rest of the sentence than if inclosed by commas.

11. Brackets are used to give an explanation, to cor-

rect a mistake, to supply an omission, or, when within quotations, to indicate that the words inclosed are not those of the author; as —

1. Yours [the American] is a nation of free men.
2. He said he knew who [whom] they selected.
3. I know her better than you [know her].
4. James Russell Lowell says: "No man [and this term will include woman] is born into the world whose work is not born with him."

APPENDIX

LESSON 1

1. In such sentences as "I want her to come home," many authors call "her to come home" an abridged clause, made from "that she should come home."

We can see no reason for expanding such phrases. Nothing is gained by it. To say that "her to come home" is a substantive noun phrase, used as the object of *want*, is all that is necessary, because every word in the phrase can be easily parsed. Besides, not all such phrases can be expanded. Take "I heard him sing a song," and try to expand. You will have "I heard that he sang a song," which is by no means the meaning of the original sentence. No, these phrases were never abridged from clauses, but some authors have tried to expand them into clauses.

2. When a noun usually masculine or feminine refers to a word, and not to a person, it is of the neuter gender ; as,

1. *Boy* is masculine because it denotes a male.

2. The girl's name is *Martha*.

Boy is neuter because it refers to the word *boy*, and not to a boy. Notice that the neuter pronoun *it* refers to *boy* in the same sentence. *Martha* is neuter because it refers to the name, and not to the girl. In "That girl is *Martha*," *Martha* is feminine because it refers to the girl.

Note.—These lessons are placed in an appendix because they are too difficult for most classes. Teachers and advanced students will, however, find the study of these lessons interesting and profitable.

3. When a noun, plural in form, refers to some word, and not to objects, it takes a singular verb ; as,

1. *Trees* is a common noun.
2. *Girls* is plural.

Trees and *girls* both take singular verbs because each refers to a single word.

4. Parse the words in italics :

1. *Dogs* is an easy word to spell.
2. *Her* is a pronoun.
3. His title is *Prince of Wales*.
4. *Those* is an adjective.
5. *Margaret* is a pretty name.

5. The term "nominative by subscription" is used in this book because authors generally use it, but there is good reason for doubting the correctness of the term.

It is generally said that "Henry Brown" signed to a letter means "Henry Brown wrote this"; but may it not mean "written by Henry Brown"? Have we not as much reason for one construction as for the other? The fact is, such words should not be given case at all because they are not in sentences, and case shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words in the sentence.

6. Sometimes a noun in the possessive by apposition is so located that its case construction is not easily seen.

1. This was Napoleon's belief, the greatest general of modern times.
2. Here rests his head upon the lap of earth, a youth to fortune and to fame unknown.

In the first, *general* is in apposition with *Napoleon*, and is in the possessive case. A better arrangement of the sentence is, "This was the belief of Napoleon, the greatest general of modern times."

In the second, *youth* is in apposition with *his*.

7. Instead of saying that nouns denoting weight, measure, value, distance, time, etc., are in the objective case without a governing word, some authors say they are objects of prepositions understood, and others call them adverbial objectives.

8. Sometimes it is difficult to decide whether the nominative or the objective should follow an intransitive infinitive having no expressed subject.

1. I should like to be (he, him).
2. It is easier to be (he, him) than to be myself.
3. It is better to be right than to be President.

In the first, *I*, the subject of the proposition, is the subject of the infinitive, and *he* is correct, to agree with *I*.

In the second, *it*, the subject of the proposition, is not the subject of the infinitive; some word referring to the speaker is undoubtedly the subject. "It is easier (for me) to be him than (for me) to be myself." *Him* is the correct word, and agrees with *me*, the understood subject of the infinitive. (The object of *for* is the phrase "me to be him".)

In the third also, *it* is not the subject of *to be*, and a subject must be supplied. We may easily see that a subject must be supplied for the first infinitive if we try to parse *right*. *Right* does not modify *it*; *better* modifies *it*, and *right* modifies *me* or *person* understood: "It is better (for a person) to be right than (for a person) to be President." *President* is in the objective case to agree with *person*, the objective subject of *to be*.

9. We have already seen that a passive verb may have an object; as, "He was given a dollar." We shall now see that this object may be an infinitive.

1. He was told a story.
2. He was told to go.

If *story* is the object of the passive verb in the first sentence (and it is the object, because no preposition can be supplied without changing the meaning), *to go* is the object in the second sentence.

The two sentences were similar in the active voice, and were made passive in the same manner :

- | | |
|---|---|
| { 1. They told him a story.
{ 2. A story was told to him.
{ 3. He was told a story. | { 1. They told him to go.
{ 2. To go was told to him.
{ 3. He was told to go. |
|---|---|

In the active form, "They told him to go," *him* is the object of the preposition *to* understood, and "to go," or, rather "him to go," is the direct object, *him* understood being the subject of the infinitive. "They told (to) him, (him) to go."

10. When verbs of making, choosing, creating, electing, etc., take two objectives denoting the same person or thing, the one denoting the result of the action is sometimes called the Factitive Object; as,

1. Nature made us men.
2. The legislature elected him senator.

Men and *senator* are factitive objects. In this book all factitive objects are called objective complements.

11. Notice these two sentences :

1. I saw the horse running.
2. I saw the horse run.

In the first, the complete object is "the horse running," and in the second, the complete object is "the horse to run." The two sentences mean the same, and *horse* is in the objective case in both, but we do not parse *horse* the same way in the two sentences. In the first, *running* is the objective complement, and *horse* is the object of "saw running." In the second, *horse* is the objective subject of "(to) run."

Some authors, in order to be consistent, supply *to be* before *running* in the first, and parse *horse* as the objective subject of the progressive infinitive "to be running," making *horse* the subject of an infinitive in both sentences. Others, also to be consistent, call *to run* an objective complement in the second, and parse *horse* as the object of "saw (to) run," making *horse* the object of *saw* and an objective complement in both sentences. The latter class will call *to go* in "I want him to go" the objective complement.

Since it is unsatisfactory to supply *to be* before the participle, and since when there is an infinitive it is better to call such objectives the subject of the infinitive, the method we have used is the most satisfactory, even if it does lack consistency.

12. When a verb has both a direct object and a cognate object, that fact cannot easily be shown in the diagram.

1. The officer struck a blow.
2. The officer struck the prisoner.
3. The officer struck the prisoner a blow.

Since a cognate object, when used alone, is really a direct object, and is diagramed as a direct object, the diagram for *blow* in the first and for *prisoner* in the second are exactly the same. Now, to place *blow* and *prisoner* as the compound object of *struck* in the third, would indicate that they have the same relation to the verb and to each other as *prisoner* and *guide* in "The officer struck the prisoner and the guide"; but we know this is not the case. The best we can do is to say that the distinction cannot be shown in the diagram.

Very few such sentences are found in the language.

LESSON 2

Analyze these sentences, and parse the words in italics:

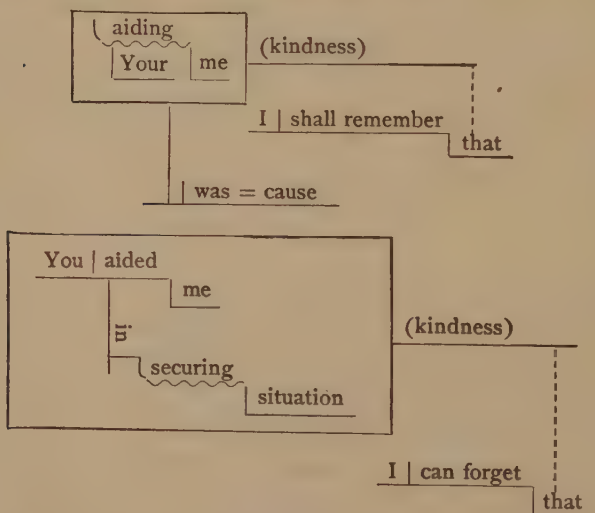
1. The hotel is three *blocks* from the square.
2. Philosophy teaches *us* to endure difficulties.
3. There's many a slip 'twixt the cup and the *lip*.
4. A company of soldiers marched six files *deep*.
5. We can make our *lives* sublime.
6. He wore his hat a *little* on one side.
7. Such is the Alhambra of Granada ; a fortress, an earthly paradise, — a ruin, wonderful in its fallen greatness.
8. He makes a good *officer*.
9. Soft eyes looked *love* to eyes which spake again.
10. He did it for Herodias's sake, his brother Philip's wife.
11. Around the man who seeks a noble end
Not angels, but divinities attend. — *Emerson*.

LESSON 3

1. We have already learned that a phrase or a clause may be used in apposition with a noun, and now we shall see that a noun may be in apposition with a phrase or a clause.

1. Your aiding me, a kindness I shall always remember, was the cause of my success.
2. You aided me in securing the situation, a kindness I can never forget.

In the last sentence, *kindness* is in apposition with the preceding clause, although the clause is not a noun clause.



In order to show that *kindness* is in apposition with the entire phrase or clause, it is necessary to "box" the phrase and clause.

2. Apposition does not belong to substantives alone. It may belong to adjectives, adverbs, phrases, etc.

1. Let us go now, while it is pleasant.
2. They started a day later, March 15, 1909.

In analyzing the first, we should make the clause modify either *go* or *now*, but we can see that the clause is explanatory of *now*.

In the second, "a day later" and "March 15, 1909," both mean the same time.

3. Diagram these sentences :

1. To return good for evil, a difficult task, is enjoined upon us.
2. That my friend should succeed, an unexpected event, was very gratifying to me.
3. The things which are of most value, cost us nothing.
4. The reason why I came is understood.
5. The table was of onyx.

4. Write a sentence having —

1. A noun in apposition with a phrase.
2. A noun in apposition with a clause.
3. A pronoun, objective after an intransitive verb.
4. A noun, nominative after a passive verb.
5. A noun, objective after a passive verb.

5. Try to make a sentence in which an adjective, an adverb, or a phrase is used appositively.

LESSON 4

1. *What* is sometimes a simple relative; as, "Take what books you want."

In this sentence, *what* is not a double relative because its antecedent *books* is expressed. We might change the order of the words and say "Take the books what you want," but this is an awkward expression. Euphony requires that *what*, when a simple relative, should precede its antecedent.

Since *what* seems to modify *books*, some authors say that *what* in such sentences is equivalent to an adjective and a relative at the same time.

The compound relative *whatever* is sometimes used just as *what* in the given sentence ; as, "He lost whatever fortune he had." *Whatever* is a simple relative, object of *had*.

2. When *it* is used as the subject of an intransitive verb having a substantive for the attribute complement, it often seems to disagree with its antecedent in gender, person, or number ; as,

1. It is I. 2. It is he. 3. It is they. 4. It is James.

In each of these sentences, *it* and the attribute complement refer to the same antecedent, which is understood. *It* refers to the antecedent as a thing, and is neuter, third, singular ; but the attribute complement refers to the same antecedent as a person or as persons, thus giving to the antecedent a gender, person, or number differing from that of *it*. When I say "It is he" I mean "It, that object, is he, a person." So that it is not inconsistent to say that *it*, neuter, and *he*, masculine, agree with the same antecedent, the person spoken of.

3. Notice this sentence :

It is you that (is, are) to blame.

Whether the word in parenthesis should be *is* or *are* depends on whether the antecedent of *that* is *it* or *you*. If *it* is the antecedent, *is* is correct ; but if *you* is the antecedent, *are* is correct.

In meaning, the relative clause is restrictive, limiting *it* by telling which particular *it* is you, yet good writers and speakers would use *are* as the predicate of *that*.

4. In such sentences as "It is wrong to steal," and "It is evident that he is a scholar," we have parsed *it* as the subject of *is*, and have disposed of the phrase or the clause as in apposition with *it* ; but some say that *it*

is simply introductory, and that the phrase or the clause is the subject.

In "It is wrong to steal," we may say "To steal is wrong ;" that is, the verb *is* agrees with either *it* or the phrase, but this is not always true. Take "It is necessary to study diligently and to behave well." Every grammarian will say that *is* is the correct form of the verb ; but if *it* is simply introductory and the two phrases are the subject, then *is* should be changed to *are*: "To study diligently and to behave well are necessary"; or, beginning with *it*, "It are necessary to study diligently and to behave well." No, *it* is not simply introductory in such sentences ; it is the grammatical subject.

5. Select the correct word :

1. He is one of the wealthiest men that (live, lives) in this country.
2. It is I that (am, is) in the wrong.
3. It is they that (was, were) responsible.
4. Neither the judge nor the jurors (was, were) unprejudiced in (his, their) (opinion, opinions).
5. I confess that I am a man that can't control (my, his) temper in such cases.
6. Two or three of us have finished (our, their) work.
7. I expected it to be (he, him) whom they would choose.
8. The insult was offered to my friend, (he, him) whom I love.
9. Let the scholar confine himself to his studies, and (he, him) that wishes to be safe avoid the vortex of politics.
10. The teacher dismissed the class, (he, him) among the rest.

LESSON 5

Analyze or diagram these sentences, and parse the words in *italics* :

1. I consider him as being a good *boy*.
2. They won the game, as was fully expected.
(*As* is a relative pronoun, having the preceding clause for its antecedent.)
3. It had been raining all day, *which* made our progress slow.
4. *Whatsoever* your hands find to do, that do with all your might.
5. *Whom* the shoe fits, let him put it on.
6. A man should never be ashamed to own that he has been in the wrong, which is only saying in other words that he is wiser to-day than he was yesterday.
7. The discussion about who would be elected was long and earnest.
8. It is in bad condition.
9. Whom great men wrong they hate.
10. Not to him who rashly dares,
But to him who nobly bears,
Is the victor's garland sure.

LESSON 6

1. An adjective sometimes modifies the idea expressed by a noun and an adjective combined; as "a good old man."

Old modifies *man*, *good* modifies *old man*, and *a* modifies *good old man*. In this sentence, the idea *old man* had already been in mind, and the speaker added the attribute *good* to the idea *old man*. Notice the punctuation.

If it is written "a good, old man," only the idea *man* had previously been in mind, and the speaker added the two attributes *good* and *old*. Each adjective modifies *man* separately.

When *and* can be placed between the two adjectives modifying a noun, they are said to be of equal rank, each modifies the noun separately, and they should be separated by a comma; but when *and* cannot be placed between the two adjectives, they are said to be of unequal rank, the first modifies the second and the noun combined,

and no comma should be used. Examples: Beautiful blue eyes. An interesting little boy. A long, steep hill. A faithful, loving friend.

eyes	
	blue
	beautiful

2. We have said that the complement of a verb may be a substantive or an adjective, but there is authority for saying that the complement may be an adverb.

In "The book is here," if *here*, an adverb, is not the complement, *is* is a complete verb; but since *is* in this sentence will not make a complete predicate by itself, it really is not a complete verb. The same is true in "The corn is in the field." Some, realizing that the verb is not complete in such sentences, but wishing to avoid calling an adverb the complement, have advocated calling *here* and "in the field" adjectives. With this we cannot agree; they are surely adverbs of place. Probably the best we can do is to say that *be* may be completed by an adverb.

3. Many grammarians say that intransitive verbs have no voice, but many others say they have the active voice.

In "The boy runs" the subject surely represents the actor. Besides, intransitive verbs have the same form as transitive verbs in the active voice. The verb has the same form in "The boy runs" that it has in "The boy runs the dog." For the above reasons and others that might be given, we believe that intransitive verbs have the active voice.

4. While no verb is passive unless it consists of the past participle of that verb preceded by some form of the verb *be*, there are several such forms that are not passive.

The verbs in "They are gone," and "The time is come" are active, although passive in form. These are idiomatic expressions

used for "They have gone," and "The time has come." Notice that *gone* and *come* are participles of intransitive verbs, and intransitive verbs do not have passive participles.

5. The infinitive is so called because the word infinitive means not finite. A finite (changeable) verb may change its form to agree with its subject, but an *infinite* verb has no such changes.

We may say "I want him to go, you to go, them to go," etc. No matter what the subject is, the infinitive is not changed.

6. *Ought* is usually followed by an infinitive, and it is not easy to determine the construction of such infinitive. Some say that *ought* (from the same root as *owe*) is transitive, and that the infinitive is the object. By others, this infinitive is given the construction of an adverb. Still others, recognizing the difficulty of disposing of the infinitive, say that *ought* and the infinitive should all be parsed together as a verb in the potential mode. We have disposed of such infinitives as adverbs, although it is sometimes difficult to find much adverb meaning in them.

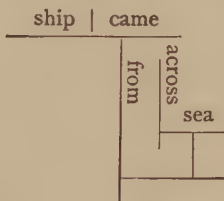
7. In such sentences as "In order to learn the particulars, they made a thorough investigation," "in order to learn" may all be taken together as the infinitive.

The statement just made is found in very few grammars, but since "in order to learn" means the same as "to learn," there is no valid objection to considering "in order to" the sign of the infinitive.

8. Prepositions composed of two or more words are divided into two classes: Compound and Complex.

9. A Compound Preposition is one composed of two or more words, each of which is a preposition when taken alone ; as, over against, from under.

Sometimes the two prepositions forming a compound preposition may be separated. In "The ship came from across the sea," "from across" is usually called a compound preposition, but *from* may be taken by itself, having "across the sea" as its object.



10. A Complex Preposition is one composed of two or more words, of which at least one is not a preposition when used alone ; as, in regard to, in spite of.

11. Analyze these sentences :

1. There was a great flood in the lower Mississippi valley.
2. This ought not to be neglected.
3. In order to succeed in any undertaking, one must put heart in his work.
4. The boys came from under the bridge.
5. For he who is honest is noble,
Whatever his fortunes or his birth.

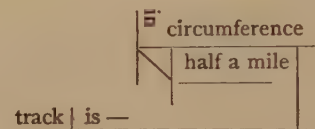
Probably the complete sentence is "For he who is honest is noble, his fortune or his birth being whatever it may [be]."

LESSON 7

Analyze these sentences :

1. The track is half a mile in circumference.

"In circumference" is an adjective phrase in the predicate, modified by "half a mile," a noun in the objective case without a governing word. To show this by diagram is difficult, but the following is satisfactory:



2. He is wanting in taste, which means that he is uncultivated.
3. Oh, what a tangled web we weave,
When first we practice to deceive.
4. Be not the first by whom the new is tried,
Nor yet the last to lay the old aside.
5. The plowman homeward plods his weary way.

This is a remarkable sentence. The words may be arranged in at least eighteen different ways without changing the meaning.

6. The kite flew so high that it could scarcely be seen.
 7. Not failure, but low aim is crime.
 8. It is better to do a few things carefully, precisely as they should be done, than to do ten times as many in a slovenly way.
 9. No man who needs a monument ever ought to have one.
 10. Methinks time should himself be glad to die.
- (*Methinks* is an old form, used idiomatically for "I think.")
11. Striving for knowledge is better than working for fame.

LESSON 8

1. Select the correct word, and give reason for your choice:

1. The murderer was (hung, hanged) in jail.
2. The girl's cloak (sits, sets) well.

3. Mrs. Lane invited all of us, (she, her) among the others.
4. Every house and barn (was, were) burned.
5. Every farmer's house and barn (was, were) burned.
6. If this (was, were) his meaning, the prediction has failed.
7. I do not admire this construction although it (is, be) much used.

2. Explain the difference in meaning between the two sentences of each pair :

1. { The writer being a scholar, was not doubted.
The writer's being a scholar was not doubted.
2. { How many shot did he mention?
How many shots did he mention?
3. { My uncle, who lives in New York, came to see me.
My uncle that lives in New York came to see me.
4. { He has some friends that I know.
He has some friends, which I know.
5. { Two trees beside that walnut were cut down.
Two trees besides that walnut were cut down.

3. Correct where necessary :

1. There is no use talking about it.
2. There is no other way but this.
3. Let him be who he may.
4. In "Thaddeus of Warsaw" there is more crying than in any novel I remember to have read.
5. Garfield was not only famous for his ability as a soldier, but for his statesmanship.
6. This is nothing else than robbery.
7. That young lady feels very badly on account of the death of her brother.
8. Let not him boast that puts his armor on, but he that takes it off.
9. No one but his friends understands his disposition.
10. This man neither sinned, nor his parents.

LESSON 9

In this lesson will be found some constructions seldom found in grammars, although they are quite common in our language. Study each one carefully, and let the meaning determine the analysis and parsing.

1. Have I not to wrestle with my lot ?
2. Life is but a dream.
3. We used to attend the concerts in New York.
4. To think that we could have been so deceived.
5. Fatigued as I was, I walked four hours.
6. Both of them may go, for ought I care.
7. He has a home of his own.
8. Better dwell in the midst of alarms,
Than reign in this horrible place.
9. Click, goes the spring.
10. As far as concerns England, she is a loser by the
bargain.
11. We are under the shelter of your roof, for which we
are under obligations to you.
12. Something attempted, something done
Has earned a night's repose.

